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ABSTRACT

The status of guidance and counseling in American education was investigated by a task force comprised of members of the American Personnel and Guidance Association and the United States Office of Education. Results of this inquiry indicated the following issues as major areas of concern: (1) comprehensiveness of guidance programs; (2) guidance practices at various educational levels; (3) career guidance and counseling; (4) special needs of minority and handicapped populations; (5) the counselor's role with school personnel, students, and the community; and (6) the impact of the law and state supervisory requirements. (HLM)

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The Status of Guidance and Counseling in the Nation's Schools

A Series of Issue Papers

American Personnel and Guidance Association
1607 New Hampshire Ave., N.W.
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These papers were prepared by the American Personnel and Guidance Association under a purchase order arrangement with the U. S. Office of Education. The papers are designed to stimulate professional and public discussion regarding the current status of guidance and counseling in the nation's schools.

The opinions expressed in these papers do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the American Personnel and Guidance Association or the U. S. Office of Education, and no official endorsement should be inferred.

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Introduction

Part D of the Education Amendments of 1976 (PL 94-482) provides for federal involvement and support for guidance and counseling programs in American education. Specifically, the legislation mandates that the Commissioner shall establish or designate an Administrative unit within the Education Division for the purposes of:

1. Carrying out the provisions of Part D - Guidance and Counseling
2. Providing information regarding guidance and counseling as a profession, guidance and counseling activities of the Federal Government, and, to the extent practicable, activities of the State and local programs of guidance and counseling, and
3. Advising the Commissioner on coordinating guidance and counseling activities in all programs he is authorized to carry out and how such activities may be coordinated with other programs of the federal government and state and local guidance and counseling programs.

The American Personnel and Guidance Association, which represents the largest block of organized guidance and counseling practitioners, has been very supportive of this new activity. Along with our largest division, the American School Counselor Association, we have committed considerable time and energy to assisting the U.S. Office of Education in the fulfillment of these important legislative objectives.

This publication represents a series of issue papers which were developed by a group of guidance professionals in the field. These papers were written to serve as a point of departure for professional and public discussion on the status of guidance in our schools. APGA hopes that they will stimulate appropriate discussion and help identify direction for the future development of the counseling profession and the improvement of guidance programs in our schools. These opinions expressed in these papers do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the American Personnel and Guidance Association or the U.S. Office of Education, and no official endorsement should be inferred.

If we are to improve and extend the quality and availability of guidance and counseling services in our nation's schools, practicing counselors must join with counselor educators, state and local supervisors, educational administrators and professional association representatives to design strategies for professional development and the improvement of guidance programs. The American Personnel and Guidance Association pledges its support toward the goal of providing quality guidance programs for all of the students in our nation's schools.

Charles L. Lewis
Executive Vice President

The Status of Guidance and Counseling Project

In August, 1977, APGA President Norman C. Gysbers and members of the professional staff met with officials of the U.S. Office of Education to develop a comprehensive project which would seek to assess the status of guidance and counseling as called for in PL 94-482.

The project which grew out of this cooperative endeavor is outlined below:

Phase I

1. To develop a series of issue papers dealing with a variety of topics related to the status of guidance and counseling in American education.

Phase II

1. To administer a series of ten regional converences to permit counseling practitioners, supervisors (city, county, and state), administrators, counselor educators, and the public to react to these issue papers and provide additional comment.
2. To prepare a series of ten regional reports which reflect the reaction and comments of the regional conference participants regarding their personal impressions of the status of guidance and counseling in American education.

Phase III

1. To administer a national conference to give detailed study to regional reports and provide interaction between participants and the leadership in the U.S. Office of Education.
2. To prepare a comprehensive national report on the status of guidance and counseling in American education for the Commissioner and eventual dissemination throughout the profession and related educational sectors.

The American Personnel and Guidance Association, under a purchase order arrangement with the U.S. Office of Education, is to carry out all of the administrative and technical functions necessary to complete the objectives in Phases I and III of the project. Phase II activities are to be conducted by a state guidance unit in each of the ten HEW regions.

Activities and Products

To date, The Association has performed these Phase I activities:

1. Collaborated with a selected group of professional leaders and USOE staff members on the topical issues and general structure for the "issue" papers.
2. Identified appropriate practitioners, supervisors, administrators, counselor educators or other individuals/groups to prepare the status papers.
3. Coordinated the writing activities of the various professional contributors.

4. Prepared status papers in final form.
5. Disseminated the status papers for use in the second plase of the project.

Product:

Series of 18 "issue" papers reflecting a variety of issues and concerns in guidance and counseling.

Upon completion of the Phase II conferences, The Association will perform activities outlined in the following work statement:

1. Collect and analyze the reports generated by the ten regional conferences.
2. Make the arrangements and develop an agenda for the national conference which responds to the issues which are defined in the regional reports.
3. Identify and invite appropriate presenters and participants (individuals and representative groups) to the national conference.
4. Conduct the national conference participants.
5. Develop a comprehensive report which reflects the reactions and comments of the national conference participants. This report on the status of guidance and counseling in American education and implications for future federal, state and local program developments will be submitted to the U.S. Commissioner of Education.
6. Explore means for dissemination of the status report to the APGA membership, counselor education institutions, chief state school officers, and related interest groups.

Product:

A national report for the Commissioner of Education on the status of guidance and counseling in American education.

APGA is pleased to have had this opportunity to work with the leadership in the U.S. Office of Education. This assessment of the current status of guidance and counseling will help both APGA and USOE to identify those needed areas which will require priority attention by the Association and the federal government in respect to the development of immediate and long range programs.

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3. Comprehensive School Guidance and Counseling Programs: Planning, Design, Implementation and Evaluation
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4. The Practice of Counseling in the Elementary School
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9. Guidance and Counseling with Special Populations
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10. Guidance and Counseling and the Law
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11. Facilitators and Barriers to the Practice of Guidance and Counseling
    Dr. Mary Maples, University of Nevada

12. The Relationship of Counselors to School Principals
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13. The Practice of Career Guidance and Counseling
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14. The School Counselor and the Community
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15. The Staff Relationships of School Counselors
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Guidance and Counseling in Schools: An Historical Approach

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Guidance and counseling in schools is in its last quarter of its first century. The first quarter of a century from approximately 1895 to 1920 was the formative years. The movement probably started because of work in those years by people such as Frank Parsons, William Rainey Harper, Lightner Witmer, Morris S. Viteles, Alfred Binet, G. Stanley Hall, and Sigmund Freud and his visit to the U.S. to name only a few. Those were the years when counselors were first designated in the schools. In 1911 in Cincinnati the first organized guidance program occurred. In 1915 in Boston the Department of Vocational Guidance was organized. Activities were sufficient in number to warrant the first conference on vocational guidance in 1910 and the National Vocational Guidance Association was formed in 1913. Yes, the first quarter of a century may be described as the formative years.

The second quarter of the century from approximately 1920 through 1945 included the expansion of the number of counselors; the introduction of group testing in schools; the rapid changes in curriculum; the changed concept of who goes to high school and the purposes of high schools; the development of tools to assist counselors such as tests, Dictionary of Occupational Titles, and beginning of counseling theories and techniques; the establishment of Federal and State offices staffed with professional people in counseling and guidance; the development of certification in some states; and the formation of an association for counselor education. In the second quarter century began then the legal recognition for school counseling and the social acceptance of new specialists.

The third quarter of a century from approximately 1945 through 1970 was very active for school counseling in many ways. New theories brought new techniques, higher education institutions established counselor education programs, school certification for counselors became an established mode, Federal legislation in the form of National Defense Education Act accelerated the school counseling activities, school counselors formed a national organization with branches in all states, and counselors examined their role and functions and began to take an active voice in their preparation. The expansion in the number of school counselors was great. Over 6,000 elementary school counselors were employed by 1969 (VanHoose & Kurtz, 1970, p. 381). In many ways the third quarter was a golden era.

The fourth quarter of a century starting in approximately 1970 brings the close to one era and the opening of a new one. The school counselor is taking on a new image; is refining tools and techniques; is being perceived as competent in additional areas such as consultation; and is taking a more pro-active, innovative role thus in many instances intervening as an agent of change. The school counselor is being requested to work more with vital people in children and teenagers lives — teachers, parents, community agencies, and the other school professionals and paraprofessionals. Yes, school counselors have a history and, if extrapolations are meaningful, school counselors have a bright future.

SCHOOL COUNSELING — A PROFESSION

To examine from a historical perspective guidance and counseling in schools, let us establish a framework built on some criteria. Let us ask whether or not school counseling is a profession? If so, when did it become one? To answer the questions we need the criteria for a profession. Let us propose four criteria and then apply these to school counseling. First to be a profession, it has to have a body of unique knowledge with recognized (accredited) graduate educational centers offering specialized programs.

Second, to be a profession school counseling has to be legally accepted with standards established and controlled by public agencies. That is a profession must gain acceptance to the extent that it is controlled by standards which are legally enforceable. A professional person is one whose services are available to the public and as such the public begins to control the preparation, right to practice, and the extent of practice.

The third criterion for a profession is to have an active organization which does set standards, holds its members accountable, does provide professional growth experiences, and does communicate with the public including the governmental agencies and legislative bodies.

The fourth criterion is more vague but in general terms to be a profession it has to have wide acceptance. The measures of wide acceptance may include public financial support, practice throughout many geographical areas, and willingness by the public to use the services.

If these four criteria were applied to guidance and counseling in schools as it existed in the early years, school counseling would not have been considered a profession. Let us now examine the developments which have made school counselors what they are today. As we do, let us ask what have been contributing factors along the road to school counseling as a profession?

BODY OF KNOWLEDGE

The formulation of the concepts and the forging of the techniques used by school counselors have been developed to a large extent by utilizing advancements in other disciplines and movements. Books are being produced on the knowledge available to school counselors; however, in a historical perspective major movements and developments highlight the contributions.

The establishment of graduate programs for the sole purpose of preparing counselors accelerated the collection of a body of unique knowledge. These centers for counselor education, which primarily have developed since World War II, have enabled school counselors to gain not only the knowledge but also the skills and competencies for application of the knowledge in assisting individuals.

Major Movements and Their Contributions

For counselors to do their work adequately they have had to bring into proper focus the influences of related disciplines as they apply to the immediate circumstances. "In this multiple-discipline approach the counselor uses the techniques, materials, information, and research of many fields for the benefits of individuals and groups (Hollis & Hollis, 1965, p. 17)."

> Increasing recognition has been given to the fact that counselor skills should be based upon theory and research in the social and behavioral sciences. The intent . . . is to identify and describe the contributions that related disciplines — religion, philosophy, political science, anthropology, psychology, economics, sociology — have made to counseling (Shertzer & Stone, 1974, p. 155).

E. G. Williamson (1965) credited three persons as the originators of systems of counseling. Frank Parsons, whose book Choosing A Vocation was published in 1909, placed emphasis upon the person and stressed the individual understanding self, having knowledge about work, and interrelating these two groups of facts (Parsons, 1909, p. 5). William Rainey Harper, founder and first president of the University of Chicago, emphasized individualization of instruction. Harper "translated his concept of counseling into personal, social, and academic programs, in contrast with Parsons, who translated his similar concept into a system of personalized relationship centered on the choice of a vocation (Williamson, 1965, p. 85)." Lightner Witmer, a clinical psychologist at the University of Pennsylvania, made use of clinical psychology to diagnose learning difficulties and encouraged his assistant, Morris Viteles, 1921, to use clinical techniques in vocational guidance.

Psychology has been an important discipline in terms of contributions to counseling and guidance. What specifically to pinpoint is difficult but illustrations would be G. Stanley Hall's initiation of the child study movement, Sigmund Freud's initiation of psychoanalysis and his lectures in the United States in 1910, and the theorists such as Williamson, Rogers, Wolpe, May, Frankl, Lewin, Ellis, Thorne, Krumboltz, and Glasser to name but a few who have contributed to school counseling.

Education and emphases in education have contributed to counseling and guidance. The work of John Dewey to individualize education helped make a place for school people to work with pupils on individual bases. The broadening of the curriculum to serve more pupils, the expansion in number of schools in more geographical locations to make school more readily accessible, the concept of a "free" education for all, and the schools as places to prepare for occupations are forces which helped create the need for school counselors. These same forces are still having a tremendous influence on the role and function of the school counselor.

Recent influences in education that have affected school counselors include talent search, minorities, special education, women's rights, computerized records and instruction, Federal educational legislation, career education, and alternative schools. Each of these influences has meant new challenges for counselors.

The testing movement has contributed. The publication in 1905 of the Binet intelligence scale may be taken as a starting point for standardized tests. The development during World War I of group testing was a milestone. Then in 1922 the Otis Self-Administering Tests of Mental Ability was released for use in schools. Today school counselors are involved with various kinds of standardized tests. One U.S. Government report listed 22,254,196 standardized tests administered in public secondary schools alone in 1967 (Review of Progress, 1969, p. 109). Throughout the 1960's and 1970's various controversies have occurred regarding uses and interpretation of tests. Counselors have had the added responsibility of determining implications of various sides of each controversy.

Counseling theories have affected what counselors do. For example, the 1940's and 1950's sharpened a difference between client-centered and directive counseling. Client-centered places the client in the center of and responsible for what happens and directive places the counselor in the center. In both kinds the counselor is very important but the skills used are quite different. The differences in philosophy and skills may have caused the two kinds of counselors to work with different kinds of students. Both theories stressed individual counseling which set a mode of operation for counselors.

The 1950's and 1960's brought new counseling theories and with them new techniques. The mode of operation was still individual counseling primarily. Then the late 1960's and the 1970's brought counseling theories which placed emphases on groups and/or families. New techniques accompanied the new theories and with new techniques and theoretical bases counselors in many schools changed their functions to include group counseling and to work with families instead of each pupil alone.

As the theories and philosophy changed, the counselors' self concept changed also. More and more of the school counselor literature moved from one of service only to one where the counselor intervenes or initiates action. Not that the service and facilitative roles are gone but rather that today the counselor is more competent and has a greater knowledge of more skills to assist individuals and groups. Today the counselor's self concept is one in which he/she knows what competencies are possessed, knows the kinds of skills needed in various situations, and knows the extent to which he/she can contribute.

Vocational Development

The factors associated with movements allied with vocational development have interesting parallels with what has occurred in school counseling in America. Each movement helped produce new knowledge. The first was vocational guidance and the potential of using psychology for helping individuals in their vocational choices. This occurred just following the turn of the century and elsewhere in this text are reports on developments in the 1910's.

The second was the testing movement and the new need for school counselors to use tests and to assist individuals in utilizing the information as they choose occupations and in turn the curriculum to make the preparation. The influence of testing on school counselors started in the 1920's with the need continuing through today and into tomorrow.

The third movement occurred during the 1930's and the depression—the placement of individuals. The Federal and State governments stepped in and did most of the placement with only a few, but certainly not the majority, of the school counselors becoming greatly involved until Sputnik and Federal legislation, NDEA. Then school counselors became deeply involved in placement—talent search, broadening occupational considerations, and curricular placement.

The fourth was the vocational development theories which came in rapid succession starting in 1951 with Eli Ginzberg, Donald Super, (1953 & 1957), Anne Roe (1956), Robert Happock (1957), John Holland (1959), and David Tiedeman (1959). Other theories followed in the 1960's but to a large extent no major changes over the 1950's. The theories emphasized two concepts—developmental concept and self concept-that made differences in how counselors worked with pupils. School counselors responded well to these concepts and to the new counseling theories and techniques which were rapidly expanding in the later part of 1950's and throughout 1960's and 1970's.

The fifth movement associated with vocational development started in late 1971 with the title career education. School counselors have had a major responsibility for implementation of career education and development into the schools. All five movements have been and still are influencing what school counselors do.

Preparation of School Counselors

What constitutes adequate preparation of a school counselor? The question has been present since the very start of the guidance movement. The general objectives of preparation have been fairly well agreed throughout. Leake in his views in 1918 stated

> The vocational counselor must also know men and women. She must know how to make records and tests of the individual, and how to interpret them correctly when made. She must have a background of experience of young people in their homes, in their work, and in their social intercourse, and perhaps above all she must have common sense, than which nothing is more uncommon (Leake, 1918, p. 401).

At the start of the guidance movement school counselors were placed in their positions without specialized preparation in counseling and guidance. Specialized programs did not exist. As late as 1945 the number of higher education institutions with specialized programs were limited. The U.S. Office of Education reported the results of a questionnaire through which two hundred or more institutions supplied statements relating to their courses in guidance. Mahoney in reviewing the information wrote:

> The courses, separately or as sequences, do not appear to be conceived as a result of any job analysis of what a guidance

> program purports to do, or what part the counselor should play in such a program . . . Moreover, there seems to be no general agreement as to the terminology of course titles, and it would seem not unfair to say that there is evidence of a great deal of confusion (Mahoney, 1952, p. 11).

By the middle to late 1950's when 13,000 full-time equivalent counselors existed, two-thirds of them failed to satisfy minimum requirements for certification and "only 2,500 new counselors were being graduated annually to meet the need for guidance personnel work at all levels of education (Review of Progress, 1969, p. 1)." The 2,500 graduates a year was quite different than what existed twenty years later in mid-1970's when 19,000 graduated a year with Masters degree and 900 with doctorates (Hollis & Wantz, 1977, p. 25).

Specific graduate courses taken by counselors vary from institution to institution but in general the areas in counseling and guidance include principles, theories, techniques, administration, information processing, and practicum. Other areas generally included are tests and measurements, related psychology, and related sociology courses. Throughout the guidance movement state certification patterns have given emphases to teacher education and teaching experience as a prerequisite to counselor certification.

The emphases on teacher preparation as a prerequisite for counselor certification has given support to the counselor preparation having a strong teacher education orientation in many institutions. The stress on individualization, interpersonal relationships, and understanding of the individual has given support to a strong psychological orientation in many institutions. Thus throughout, counselor preparation has been pulled between the two emphases.

In an analysis of who teaches the counselor education courses in higher education institutions, one finds that 87 percent of the professors hold doctorates and 54.6 percent of them spend full time in counselor education (Hollis & Wantz, 1977, p. 28). As to the area in which each majored, no data were available. Studies have been made as to what professional organizations they belong. Predominantly, they belong to either American Personnel and Guidance Association or American Psychological Association and in many cases to both.

During the 1960's and 1970's the passing of the Vocational Education Act and its amendments and the Career Education Incentive Act, a renewed emphasis to vocational guidance and counseling has occurred. These three orientations — teacher education, psychology, and vocational education — plus tests and measurements seem to be in varying degrees the major orientations under which counselors have received their preparation throughout the guidance movement.

Government Publications

The influence on counseling in schools by Federal and State publications is difficult to measure. Two Federal publications can be used as illustrations of how counseling in schools is influenced. The Dictionary of Occupational Titles, developed and prepared by the U.S. Employment Service, has been the bases for discussing groupings of occupations, for reflecting "relationships among occupations not only in terms of work involved but also in terms of worker characteristics required (D.O.T., Vol. I, 1965, p. IX)," for coding occupational information, and for filing and retrieving information. These bases have affected what counselors do with pupils. Without the D.O.T., the counselor's job would be different and, as we have seen over the release of the three editions, 1939, 1949, and 1965, the counselor's job has changed in part with a changing of the occupational classification structure from second to third edition.

The Occupational Outlook Handbook prepared by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics is a resource book for counselors, pupils, and parents. The information is kept current through biennial issues. Counselors use the book with pupils to help them consider important aspects of occupations including latest trends and outlooks.

In no way could each counselor prepare all the resources needed. The dependence of the counselor upon external sources is an illustration of how the school counselor through using resources developed outside of schools has been an important component in facilitating the preparation and transition of pupils to responsible activities within society.

ACCEPTANCE OF SCHOOL COUNSELING

The acceptance of school counseling can be measured in various ways. One way is to examine where the acceptance is demonstrated such as in schools, state agencies of education, and Federal agencies. Another is to examine the number of school counselors at various times. Still another way would be to examine the amount of time spent in counseling and guidance duties by those appointed as school counselors. A frequent way has been to examine the number of pupils on an average assigned to each counselor — the counselor-pupil ratio.

In this section highlights of the items listed for examining acceptance are discussed. The instances and numbers are presented to illustrate public acceptances at the local, state, and national levels.

Early Action by Bureau of Education

Guidance in schools had begun by the turn of the twentieth century. In 1918 Albert Leake wrote regarding the rise of vocational guidance that the

> . . . movement for vocational guidance and assistance may be looked upon as a movement for the conservation of our human resources. The movement arose owing to a widespread impression that the majority of our boys and girls leaving school, and the parents of these children, were guided by no sound principles in their choice of occupation, other than the immediate wage received, and that they gave no thought to the future prospects of the industry (Leake, 1918, pp. 377-378).

The movement had attained such proportion that a national conference was called in Boston in 1910 and another one in New York City in 1912. At the latter "a committee was formed to arrange for a convention in 1913, and to consider the formation of a permanent organization if this seemed advisable (Leake, 1918, p. 380)." As a result, the National Vocational Guidance Association was formed at Grand Rapids, Michigan, October 21-24, 1913.

The Bureau of Education (as it was titled then), Washington, D.C., took an active part in helping others know what occurred by publishing Bulletin No. 14 in 1914 entitled "Vocational Guidance." The Bulletin contained the papers presented at the organizational meeting of the National Vocational Guidance Association in 1913. Thus guidance and counseling in schools has been interwoven with actions in the Federal offices for education throughout this century, a reflection of societal readiness and support.

State Education Agency for Guidance

By 1958 the States employed 99 guidance supervisors. By 1967 more than 200 guidance supervisors were employed by the 54 States and territories (Review of Progress, 1969, p. 27). Thus by the late 1960's the various States had accepted counseling and guidance in the schools and were providing at the state level professional staff to assist the local staff.

Hollis and Wantz reported in 1977 a total of 220 staff members in all 50 States, District of Columbia, and four Territories. "The number of Counseling and Guidance Staff members ranged from zero in Alaska and Arizona to fourteen in Ohio with an average number of four in each administrative unit (Hollis & Wantz, 1977, p. 457)." The educational background was reported on 194 of the 220 staff members with 20.1 percent holding the doctorate degree, 2/1 percent holding the sixth-year degree, 73.7 percent holding the masters degree, and 4.1 percent holding the baccalaureate degree (p. 458). "Most persons (79.8 percent) performing counseling and guidance functions in State Departments of Education devoted full time to these functions (p. 458)."

The responsibilities of state education agency staff depend to a large extent upon the major emphases of the respective states at any given time. Frank Wellman in 1957 summarized the state staffs' views of their responsibilities. The major items were promotion of guidance for all students, professional leadership, coordination, assistance to local schools, information utilization, leadership and assistance in research, pre-service and in-service of individuals, assistance in producing an integrated educational program at the local and state levels, assistance in growth of state educators, and evaluation of guidance policies and procedures (Warner, 1969, pp. 12-13).

The broad coverage of responsibilities continues as indicated in a 1977 report. The five areas of responsibilities with consistency in over 80 percent of the states were career and life planning; agency liaison (working with community agencies other than schools); demonstration, pilot, and/or examplary programs; evaluation of counseling and guidance programs; and vocational guidance (Hollis & Wantz, 1977, p. 461). Other areas similar to Wellman's 1957 list also were included.

In terms of what school counselors have received from state education agency counseling and guidance staff may be deducted from what the state staffs' indicated require their time. Consultation, defined as expertise of staff used in assisting others, required the greatest amount of time. In-service was second highest in amount of time spent and was defined as training of others, systematic encouragement of growth activities for counselors, and conducting in-service programs. School counselors received the majority of the service time. "Then State Departments' staffs potentially have a significant impact on the professional development of counselors after employment (Hollis & Wantz, 1977, p. 462)."

School counselors are kept abreast with changes applicable to counseling and guidance through various means. The state staffs assist through in-service. Illustrative of these in-service activities are in areas of career and life planning (in 43 of the 44 states supplying data in 1977); legislation defined as State and Federal laws related to licensure, Buckley Amendment, funding, and pending legislation (in 41 of 44 states); skill development to increase competencies (in 41 of 44 states); and needs assessment training (in 35 of 44 states) (Hollis & Wantz, 1977, pp. 463-464).

Availability of Counselors in Schools

To reflect the availability of counselors in schools a starting point would be 1895 with vocational guidance work by George Merrill at California School of Mechanical Arts, San Francisco. In 1898 class counselor activities were conducted by Jesse B. Davis at Central High School, Detroit (Miller, 1961, p. 28). These are two early examples and reflect the almost non-existence of school counselors prior to the twentieth century.

The first school system wide action was in 1909 when a counselor-teacher was appointed for each elementary school and high school in Boston (McDaniel & Shaftel, 1956, p. 23). In 1911 a guidance program was organized in Cincinnati Public Schools by Frank P. Goodwin (McDaniel & Shaftel, 1956, p. 24).

A study on counseling in city schools was reported in 1932 by M. Edith Campbell, Chairman, Subcommittee on Vocational Guidance of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. The data were obtained from questionnaires sent to superintendents of schools in 288 cities, representing every state and the District of Columbia. "Vocational counseling is carried on in 99 of the 150 public-school systems represented in the tabulated questionnaires (p. 43)." Of the returns the smaller cities (less than 50,000 population) were 56.9% with counselors, the medium-sized cities (50,000 to 99,999 population) were 57.1%, and the large cities (over 100,000) were 9.4%. In the 77 school systems that reported, the number of counselors were 885 counselors with 246 of them spending full time in counseling duties (p. 44). The counselor-student ratio in smaller cities was "one full-time counselor for every 1,595 pupils of counseling age; the medium-sized cities, one for every 1,503 pupils; and the largest cities, one for every 3,340 pupils (p. 46)."

Thus in the twenty year period from 1911 when the first guidance program was organized in Cincinnati until 1930, the number of counselors had increased. The next twenty years brought a continued growth. Jones and Miller in 1953 surveyed in thirty-nine states, three territories, and the District of Columbia. They found that 23,000 schools employed a total of 7,000 counselors who were assigned half-time or more to guidance responsibilities.

By 1958 the number of full-time equivalent persons with the title school counselor was 12,000. In the next three years which was the first three years of the National Defense Education Act the number of school counselor full-time equivalent doubled to 24,492. By fiscal year 1967, the number of full-time equivalent public secondary school counselors had increased to 37,915 (Review of Progress under Title V-A, NDEA, 1969, p. 114). Pedone reported data collected in May, 1969 from a national survey of schools in which he stated school counselors "were reported available by nearly all (97 percent) of the secondary schools and only about one-third (32 percent) of the elementary schools (Pedone, 1971, p. 3)." Today the number of counselors in schools is estimated to be over 40,000 full-time equivalent in secondary schools and over one-fifth that many more full-time equivalent in elementary schools.

As the number of counselors increased the counselor-pupil ratio decreased. Shertzer and Stone (1974, p. 37) gave the 1958-59 year counselor-pupil ratio of 1 counselor to 960 pupils (about two-thirds the ratio of 1 to 1503 in the 1930 study) and a reduction to approximately one-half for 1970-71 year with a ratio of 1 to 460. The major changes occurred during the 1960's with very little change during the 1970's.

In 1977 Hollis and Wantz reported a study on schools serving a city or county with a population of over 100,000 people. "In the elementary/middle school 35.1% of the counselors on an average worked with over 1300 students each.... No school system had a smaller counselor-student ratio than 1 to 200 and only 20.8% had a ratio of 1 to 500 students or less (Hollis and Wantz, 1977, p. 500)." In the junior and/or secondary schools the largest interval was 301 to 400 students for each counselor which occurred in 40.4% of the school systems. Thus 82.7% of the counselors each "worked with between 201 and 500 students.... The conclusion can be drawn that in large school systems the number of students with whom counselors are assigned to work vary considerably but the chances are that 4 times out of 5 the number will be between 201 and 500 students (p. 501)."

The availability of counselors at the local school level is an indication of the public support for counselors. The counselor-pupil ratio has decreased but has not decreases as rapidly in the elementary schools as in the secondary schools.

LEGISLATION AND THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR

At various times throughout the guidance movement legislation has affected counselors. In 1946, Federal funds for salaries of guidance supervisors and counselors were made available through the George-Barden Act. This was probably the first major legislation affecting school counselors.

In this section is an examination of other Federal and State actions which are indicative of the influences. Establishment of State and Federal offices to serve school counseling was not always done by legislative law but has had directly or indirectly legislative approval.

The school counselor certification is a legal control on who can practice and with what qualifications. The certification activities like many others started in the second quarter of the century but the main activities have occurred since 1945.

Establishment of Guidance Service Offices

Guidance and counseling was being done in various schools throughout the country without an administrative or service office within the U.S. Government. In 1939, Harry A. Jager was appointed Chief of the Occupational Information and Guidance Services of the U.S. Office of Education. The office was established to give leadership and provide assistance in counselor education in cooperation with and done at the option of each state.

In the same year, 1939, the U.S. Office of Education "sent twenty representatives to each state department of education to gather data, collect reports, and obtain oral statements on facets of the programs, staff, and facilities" in the areas of guidance and pupil personnel services (Warner, 1969, p. 11). Only one state, New York, had personnel especially appointed to work in guidance. New York was the first state to appoint (in 1929) full-time personnel to work in guidance. Sixteen other state departments in 1939 indicated guidance as a function but without specific personnel appointed. Nine states had specialized services for guidance with New York and Kansas paying for the services entirely from state funds and the other seven had the services located in vocational education divisions and supported partly from Federal funds (Warner, 1969, p. 11).

Following the U.S. Government leadership, counseling and guidance offices were established at the state level. The major thrust was post 1945. In 1957 Frank Wellman made another study of "Provisions and Activities of State Departments of Education for Guidance and Pupil Personnel Services" and found that thirty-seven of the forty-five states reporting had a state staff unit with specific responsibilities for guidance/pupil personnel services.

The office for guidance and counseling in the Federal Government provides an interesting means of perceiving the importance and responsibility of counseling in our schools. The number of professional personnel has varied from one to three most of the time with as many as eighteen at one time during the administration of National Defense and Education Act. Duties and responsibilities, too, have changed and with those changes the office has had different titles, e.g., Occupational Information and Guidance Services, Guidance and Personnel Services Branch, Guidance and Counseling Branch. The work of the Federal and State offices have made a difference in counseling in schools and in turn school counselors have assisted in changes in expectations in State and Federal offices for guidance and counseling.

The Federal Government with an office for guidance and counseling and in 1977 with 53 of the 55 state and territory education agencies having personnel assigned for counseling and guidance is directly or indirectly having legislation, rules, regulations, and requirements which establish what is and can be done in school guidance and counseling programs. These are illustrations of legislation applicable to school counselors.

Certification of School Counselors

The first state to require state certification for guidance workers was New York in 1926. Some 21 years later the Occupational Information and Guidance Service of the U.S. Office of Education made a survey and found in 1947 that 16 states had counselor certification plans (Benson & Froehlich, 1948).

The rapid expansion in number of states with certification and the modification of requirements occurred in the 1950's and 1960's. Thirty-five states and territories in 1960 had mandatory certification and four had optional requirements. Three years later (1963) 49 states and territories had changed their requirements (Camp, 1963, p. v). Four years later (1967)

> Twenty-two states and outlying areas have changed their requirements for school counselors ... 53 states and outlying areas have specific guidance certification requirements for counselors on the secondary school level and three, on the elementary school level (Houghton, 1967, p. v).

Federal and State Legislation

Federal legislation since Sputnik in 1957 has had a tremendous impact upon guidance. In 1958 the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) became a reality. Title V-A and V-B of this Act probably did as much as any one thing to expand the counseling and guidance field and to assist in the preparation of counselors, particularly for elementary and secondary schools.

The Vocational Education Act (VEA) of 1963 and its amendments have made new openings for school counselors. For example the vocational-technical school expansion in numbers in 1960's and 1970's is to a large part due to VEA. A new thrust for "vocational" counselors in school has been a by-product.

The Office of Career Education and the National Advisory Counsel on Career Education were both created pursuant to the Education Amendments of 1974. The Career Education Incentive Act of December 1977, is another example of counseling and guidance being written into Federal legislation.

State legislations in addition to establishing school counselor certification and authorizing expenditures for school guidance and counseling programs have other laws. For example, State of Indiana on March 11, 1965, adopted a statute which reads in part "Any counselor duly appointed or designated a counselor for the school system ... shall be immune from disclosing any privileged or confidential communication made to such counselor as such by any such pupil ... (Killian, 1970, p. 430)."

PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Several organizations have been influential in what school counselors have achieved over the years. Four professional organizations, three of which are now Divisions of the other one, have been selected to illustrate what and how school counselors have joined together in a professional manner.

National Vocational Guidance Association

From the very start of NVGA in 1913, it has been active in establishing Principles and Practices of Vocational Guidance which was the title of a 1930 publication. The material was formulated in 1921, revised in 1924, and revised again in 1930. One statement issued then probably has been a guiding principle for school counselors throughout this century.

> The underlying principles which govern vocational guidance activities are based upon the recognition of individual differences, of the complexity of modern occupational life, of the right of the individual to make his own choices, and upon the realization that the adjustment of an individual to his occupation is an ever changing situation (1930).

Upon close examination of the underlying principle one will notice that the psychological emphases of what Parsons listed as Step One is missing, that is of understanding self, aptitudes, abilities, interests, ambitions, resources, limitations, and their courses. The omission continued until the late 1940's and early 1950's when more emphasis was given by NVGA to mental health and psychology.

NVGA focuses attention upon work, career development, and vocational guidance practices and procedures. School counselors in 1940's and 1950's were more active as a group in NVGA than they are now. One reason is that they formed their own organization American School Counselor Association.

American School Counselor Association

ASCA, formed in early 1950's, works to define and advance the role of the school counselor at all educational levels, elementary through postsecondary, and to achieve national recognition for this important function in education. Two publications, The School Counselor, now in its 25th year, and Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, now in its 12th year, have been means for counselors to keep abreast with theory and practice in counseling, professional experimentation and research, information relating to student problems of the day, and professional concerns of counselors.

In the 1960's, practicing school counselors through ASCA took leadership in defining the school counselor's role and functions. Pressures were great in the 1950's and 1960's as certification became more specific about courses, as legislation such as NDEA began to set standards, and as reports such as James B. Conant's The American High School Today stipulated "there should be one full-time counselor (or guidance officer) for every 250 to 300 pupils in the high school (1959)."

Through ASCA, the school counselors have been heard. As would be expected in a membership of 12,000, not all agree but ASCA has been a forum where views have been discussed and as a result school counselors have and are having a voice in what happens in schools.

Within National Education Association (NEA) has been established an organization to serve school counselors in a way similar to ASCA. In an historical perspective, the NEA group is young.

Association for Counselor Education and Supervision

ACES membership consists primarily of people in three settings — counselor education institutions, state education agencies, and supervisory units of local school systems. As such ACES has been influential in the school counselor's preparation and the extent and kind of supervision received.

In 1960 ACES launched a cooperative national study of counselor education. Many grassroot committees worked to develop criteria to serve as guidelines for college and universities in the organization, staffing, and curricular planning for counselor education programs. School counselors have been involved in developing the criteria. The "Standards for Counselor Education in the Preparation of Secondary School Counselors" were adopted on an experimental basis in 1964. The Standards have undergone several changes since then to include elementary school counselors and work at the doctorate level. In March 1978 the Standards will be discussed at the National Convention in Washington, D.C.

Counselor supervision in local schools has not received much attention in the literature. ACES in the 1970's appointed a national committee chaired by John Boyd to study counselor supervision in all aspects. The committee reported to ACES and a new publication Counselor Supervision endorsed by ACES is to be released in March 1978.

What is happening at the local and state level in counselor supervision is not clear. The shift in personnel in large school systems between 1975-76 school year and 1976-77 year would raise questions as to how secure those positions are. The supervision of school counselors may be at the threshold of a new era.

American Personnel and Guidance Association

APGA was formed in early 1950's out of the merger of NVGA, ACES (then known as National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers), and ACPA (American College Personnel Association). The formation of APGA occurred at the same time as expansion of counselor positions, state agencies establishing counseling and guidance units with staff, and state certification of school counselors. APGA became the official national organization to speak for school counselors and other helping profession personnel. As a result, counselors joined APGA and the membership expanded — approximately 18,000 in 1965 and 40,000 in 1978.

Through APGA and its Divisions (now totaling 12) school counselors have had a vehicle to speak nationally; to be heard by other organizations and legislators at the local, state, and national levels; to formulate guidelines, recommendations, and criteria; to communicate with each other on topics of mutual concern; and to combine the power, thinking, and wisdom of professional people to achieve the objectives for which the counseling and guidance movement stands. School counselors have taken an active role in structuring APGA to serve their needs and to develop the positions, materials, and other means for achieving the desired outcomes.

Numerous illustrations could be given of how APGA has assisted school counselors. Illustrations would include APGA's role in passage of NDEA and other legislation; publications such as standards for preparation of counselors, Wrenn Report (The Counselor in a Changing World), Personnel and Guidance Journal, Code of Ethics, and various films; development of workshops for professional growth; placement service; resolutions; and position papers. The State Branches and regional structure are providing an organizational structure to meet some of the school counselors problems.

TOMORROW IS SCULPTURED TODAY

Today is yesterday's future and tomorrow's history. School counseling and time are locked into a continuous flow, in which the future holds the potential, the past provides the experiences, and the present, even though ever so short, is when the plans are made — when tomorrow is sculptured.

The future for school counseling will be controlled by the sequence of decisions made among the alternatives as they occur; therefore, decisions control experiences. The experiences school counselors have had place them on the threshold of a new era. Time and the contributions of hundreds of people from various disciplines have provided the body of knowledge. The public acceptance is widespread. The legal authorization and certification has been obtained. A local, state, and national organizational structure has been formulated and is operating. Criteria for a profession have been met. However, tomorrow will hold new challenges.

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Theoretical and Conceptual Foundations of Guidance and Counseling in School

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OVERVIEW

Any inquiry into the status of guidance and counseling in American education must concern itself with the theoretical and conceptual foundations of its practice. What are the substantive bases of the function? What knowledge undergirds and influences the formulation of guidance policy and practice? These questions appear *essential* to any consideration of the definition of the guidance function in schools as the answers would give a partial answer to "why things are as they are".

A prior statement to these considerations may be an examination of premises regarding the relationship of guidance to counseling. Such a statement may be crucial to an understanding not only of the ensuing considerations but also of the issues involved in the relationship of theory and guidance.

In this paper, *guidance* will be the term used to represent the basic knowledge base which unifies the organizational concept of pupil personnel services in schools. As such, the notion of guidance will be viewed as a basic construct which embraces counseling, school psychology and school social work and, therefore, not as something peculiar to the work of the school counselor. Within this context, however, my concern will be primarily with the role and function of the school counselor who is the only pupil personnel specialist that wishes to be defined as an educator, or better a "schoolman", rather than as as a professional who derives primary definition from a source outside the school.

ISSUES AND IMPACT

How then may we discern the theoretical and conceptual foundations of *guidance*? Are there basic principles of guidance? Are there theories of guidance?

In an earlier work (1966), I invented a distinction between work premised on the assumption that guidance is a derivative of more basic disciplines and work which attempts to build independent theories *of* guidance. Two different orientations to the relationship between guidance and theory were characterized: (1) the *established* view, an *atheoretical* orientation, crediting guidance with no independent substance and hence no need for its own theory; and (2) the emerging view, a *substantive* orientation in which guidance is seen as having an independent substance for which comprehensive theory can and should be formulated.

The literature on research regarding theory was characterized as meager. The lag in development of guidance theory was not attributed solely to the atheoretical orientation. In addition, seven influences or deterrents to the development of guidance theory was identified: (1) the treatment of guidance solely as service and as practice; (2) the redesignation of aims and interests by the professional associations; (3) the dearth of theories of teaching and instruction; (4) the failure to lodge the responsibility for the decisional premises regarding the substance and definition of guidance in school systems with a guidance administrator; (5) the fascination in guidance with partial theories and the lack of distinction between research programs and applied service programs; (6) the concentration of what theory-building there is in guidance with career development theories and with counseling theories; and (7) the working postulate that one group of sciences produces knowledge while a second applies that knowledge.

The consequences of some of these deterrents are even clearer now a decade later. An example is the redesignation of aims by the professional organizations. Today overwhelming concern with the professionalization of counseling per se (not just school counseling) is having negative effects on the formulation of guidance theory. The concern is necessary, perhaps, an essential reaction to the professionalization efforts of counseling psychologists. (The direction of Division 17 of the American Psychological Association has been a movement from counseling and guidance to counseling psychology to counseling psychology.) The movement of counseling psychology is, in its turn, necessitated by concern for its own professional definition and practice which is threatened by clinical psychology's and medical and psychiatric efforts to control the provision of mental health services in American society.

The consequence is that if counseling, rather than guidance, is seen as the substance of the work of the school counselor, then their credibility as educators will be further undermined if not completely destroyed.

What has happened to make this so? The effect of the professional redefinitions has been a concentration within departments of counselor education on the individual counseling dimensions of school counseling and a strong movement away from study and concern with education and the process of schooling. Counselor educators are increasingly less comfortable in schools of education; schools of education are increasingly less comfortable with their counselor education departments. Consequently, most students in counselor education departments (as with their fellow pupil personnel services specialists) — who have any interest in schools — wish to be counselors in schools and not school counselors. This phenomenon underscores the alienation of counseling from a central definition in the schooling process and an awareness of the reality of the insignificance and impotence of current definitions of school counseling. That eventually was foreseen and has come to pass.

What is the status of theory now as compared to 1965?

The amount of significant work since then has been negligible. Shetzer and Stone's (1976) discussion of theoretical efforts cites few references after that date, almost all dealing with psychological education. The emergent orientation has not advanced significantly and seems to have been overwhelmed by the impact of our national economic crisis on educational financing (and consequent restrictions of support of "auxiliary" services) and on the professionalization processes of mental health workers discussed above.

Yet if the movement within the school counseling aspect of guidance is to have the substantive foundations essential to success, then those in school counseling must present well-formulated, carefully elaborated statements of the unique and distinct body of knowledge and practice which they wish to have adopted in education.(1968) For guidance — the work of the school counselor — to be acknowledged as being as basic to the process of schooling as instruction, then certain changes in the structure and organization of guidance in schools becomes essential in order to reflect the functional changes.

It must be admitted, however, that the current structures and definition of guidance practice in schools do reflect the reigning theoretical conceptions of guidance. Those conceptions that do predominate in contexts where guidance policy is formulated are those of the atheoretical, established orientation described above, i.e., guidance is without substance.

The consequences are grave. It is such definitional structures which allow — indeed support, if not encourage — state and regional accreditation authorities to uphold ratios of 400 high school students to one counselor as adequate. What services — let alone how many — can one counselor deliver to 400 students?

Has the emergent orientation "emerged" to a place of prominence and dominance in work on guidance theory? What if any new directions are discernible?

The "new" directions seem to converge around the notion of the personal development of students through schooling, a notion advanced either for consideration (1969) as the central construct for guidance. Personal development was defined as being concerned with the continuing development of intelligence about self, with the development of self knowledge through systematic, personal inquiry. What has come about within the past few years is extensive development of activities, practices, procedures, and programs that allow opportunity for the development of intelligence regarding one's person. Advances in psychological education, in affective and humanistic education all converge on the same kind of outcomes.

Conceptions of guidance and, therefore, of school counseling have changed so dramatically as a result of advances in theory that for a counselor to perform competently their expanded involvement with students, teachers, and parents, the ratio of 400 to 1 for high schools (or 1 to 4-800 for elementary schools) is anachronistic and hopelessly out-of-date. However, such restrictions do constrain the delivery of more powerful, modern programs of guidance which would contribute more significantly to the education of each student.

To work as a school counselor — from out of the context of psychological education, for example — calls for increased involvement with a smaller total number of students, and with a larger number of teachers, parents, and community people. It calls for the development of a guidance curriculum, for the creation of opportunity through small groups and classrooms (often in collaboration with teachers) for students to come to know the kind of self they are building and have built, and to confront themselves with the meanings they attribute to their experiencing, and the consequences such attributions will have on their future self. Such a posture places the counselor clearly in the mainstream of schooling in contact with each and every student as an educator whose work complements that of the teacher.

These issues do impact on school counseling in direct ways. The lack of substantive theory in guidance has resulted in the delivery of "guidance" services which are clerical and administrative and thus retarded severely, if not prevented, the development of a profession of school counseling.

The focus on counseling, and the preoccupation with "personal-emotional" counseling, has resulted in insular counselor perceptions of the relevance and relatedness of educational and vocational concerns to the personal-emotional life of the student (1972). Counselors miss great opportunity to be of help to students by so classifying and reifying their concerns. I would state categorically that there is no possibility for a definition of school counseling to become viable unless the educational and vocational aspects of students' lives are a primary concern. The emergence of career education and the subsequent focus on career development serve to underscore this contention. (1973)

Guidance theory is also interwoven with definitions of education. (1969) The development of substantive theory is constrained by the existing structures in education. For those structures to accommodate to modern conceptions of guidance is not an easy task. Indeed, to some extent, "accommodation" requires, indeed, demands a redefinition of the present assumptive structure of education which essentially says that (1) education is teaching, (2) the primary concern in education is with the teaching-learning situation, and (3) the primary relationship is that of teacher-student. If this analysis is accurate, the centrality of the teacher and teaching is readily apparent. Implicit is a fourth premise: there is only one type of educator in the schools — the teacher. Within this framework, the establishment of a counselor role with primary and systematic concern with the personal development of each student is precluded by definition. A redefinition centered on personal development will not of itself insure the development of a unique and distinctive counseling function as an integral part of education; it will, however, make it possible.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The establishment and funding of a central office of guidance in the Office of Education.

The lack of such an office to give focus and coordination — if not direction and leadership — to the scattered and varied attempts to provide guidance programs in education, especially for "special" populations (e.g., handicapped, bi-lingual, minority, women), works against development of any systematic, programmatic programs of guidance-in-education. Its presence could contribute immeasurably to the institutionalization of the guidance and counseling function in American education.

A second important responsibility would be to oversee the implementation of guidance legislation in the States, particularly in those States which have no chief guidance officer. Guidance legislation is not always executed as intended. The amorphous nature of the definition of guidance allows this to happen. A central office could help shape the professional development of the guidance function.

2. The establishment of a chief guidance officer in each of the states.

It is desirable (is it possible?) to require that each State have a chief guidance officer and an articulated guidance program/plan before any guidance monies (or any Federal monies?) are allotted to them. To insure the establishment, perhaps the office can be underwritten by Federal funds for the first few years or in a continuing way as is the vocational guidance office.

3. To encourage and support basic and applied research activities dealing with the guidance and counseling function in education.

We cannot now formulate nor advocate national policy regarding school counseling on the strength of our current research. Increased research is necessary to develop the knowledge required to establish sound policy recommendations.

4. To encourage state and regional accreditation authorities to adopt lowered realistic counselor-student ratios.

Reasonable ratios would allow counselors the opportunity to expand their roles to maximize their use of new knowledge and new programs and, thus, maximize their contribution to the educational process. (In school systems where the new roles are being implemented, the ratios in the high schools vary from 200 to 225 students per counselor.)

5. To encourage and support the expansion of guidance staffs and programs at (and by) the local education agencies.

Decreasing enrollments are resulting in a decrease in the number of required teaching staff. These positions need not be "lost" to the system but represent an opportunity to bring guidance staffs up to the strength necessary to make significant contributions to the development of students' lives.

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Comprehensive School Guidance Programs

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> As public expectations increase for individualizing the educational process, as some options open for education beyond high school, and as the job markets shift with the ebb and flow of social and technological change, the challenge and the responsibilities resting upon the country's school counselors become steadily more demanding. (Marland, 1977, p. 7)

Never, in any period of our professional history, has the demand for guidance and counseling programs and services been greater. Support for this statement can be inferred with little difficulty from the frequent mention of the need for guidance and counseling in Federal legislation. Support for this statement also can be inferred from the established position of counselor or personnel worker at all levels in our nation's schools, in rehabilitation agencies and the Job Service and in private agencies across the country. It is clear too in statements by individuals in policy making positions at national, State and local levels responsible for planning, funding and managing guidance programs which indicate they expect guidance practitioners, particularly those in schools, to carry on a greater variety of guidance activities than previously.

As these substantial expectations impact on the practice of guidance in the schools, guidance personnel are confronted with complex problems of coordination and implementation. On the one hand they are expected to continue carrying out traditional tasks such as individual counseling, teacher and parent consultation, testing and scheduling activities and other administrative-clerical duties while at the same time they also are expected to coordinate, if not actually deliver, an expanded variety of new guidance activities. Often these two sets of expectations are in conflict to the extent

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that there is only sporadic application of these new activities, if at all, without much attention being devoted to how these new activities plus those that are more traditional should be organized.

To help us understand how these expanded expectations for guidance and counseling cause practitioner role and function conflict and thus impact on how guidance is organized in the schools, it is first necessary to review briefly the history of our field. Then, based on the understanding the review provides us concerning past and current practices in guidance organization and administration, the next step will be to identify and discuss the elements of a comprehensive systems approach to the organization and administration of guidance which will allow us to effectively combine traditional guidance activities with those created by the increased expectations of our consumers. Finally, the impact of such a programmatic approach on students, its implications for counselors, and needed new emphases on counselor preparation and Federal and State legislation will be discussed.

A BRIEF HISTORY

The history of organized guidance in the United States can be divided into three distinct but overlapping time periods. The first period began around the turn of the century and continued into the 1920s. It was characterized by an emphasis on the transition from school to work; the choice of an occupation, appropriate preparation for it and the attainment of success in it (Parsons, 1909). The second period emerged in the 1920s as distinct changes began to occur in the theory and practice of guidance. Beginning in the 1920s, guidance theory and practice became more clinically oriented. Increasingly, emphasis was placed on counseling; counseling for personal adjustment. This emphasis continued to dominate the field until the late 1960s. Today, guidance is entering a new era. The focus is on comprehensive guidance programs organized systematically around person-centered outcomes.

The Early Years: Guidance for Selection and Placement

A major emphasis of guidance during the time period 1900-1908 to 1920 was the transition from school to work. The term vocational guidance was used for the first time by Frank Parsons in 1908 to define and describe organized guidance activities which assisted individuals in this transition process (Davis, 1969). Parsons' book, Choosing a Vocation, published in 1909, contains a succinct statement of his formulation of vocational guidance.

> In the wise choice of a vocation there are three broad factors: 1) a clear understanding of yourself, your aptitudes, abilities, interests, ambitions, resources, limitations, and their causes; 2) a knowledge of the requirements and conditions of success, advantages and disadvantages, compensation, opportunities, and prospects in different lines of work; 3) true reasoning on the relations of these two groups of facts. (Parsons, 1909, p. 5)

Parsons' formulation of vocational guidance indicates he viewed it as a series of contacts with a counselor in which individuals would come to an understanding of self and the work world. Self study was an important part of this process. The anticipated outcomes of these activities were that individuals would choose appropriate occupations and then prepare and progress in them.

Changes in Theory and Practice: Guidance for Adjustment

Parsons' formulation plus those of such early leaders as Jessie Davis, Anna Reed and Eli Weaver had, by 1920, spread across the country. However, during the early 1920s, a number of visible shifts began to occur in these early approaches. Gradually, traditional vocational concerns began to be overshadowed by educational and psychological problems of personal adjustment (Johnson, 1972). Vocational guidance began to take on a more personal, diagnostic, clinical orientation. As a result, a new model began to emerge; one that was clinical in nature. Counseling rather than guidance became more popular.

By the beginning of the 1930s, as a result of the continuing influence of such movements as testing and mental health, the clinical model of counseling with its emphasis on personal counseling dominated professional theory and practice.

> Up to 1930,...not much progress had been made in differentiating this function (personal counseling) from the pre-existing programs of vocational and educational guidance. After that date, more and more of a separation appeared as guidance workers in high schools became aware of increasingly large numbers of students who were troubled by personal problems involving hostility to authority, sex relationships, unfortunate home situations, and financial stringencies. (Rudy, 1965, p. 25)

While the personal adjustment theme continued to play a dominant role in guidance theory and practice from the 30s through the 60s, the earlier conception of guidance as vocational guidance continued to show strength, too. Evidence of this was apparent in the efforts of such organizations as the National Vocational Guidance Association and the Federal government as they worked to develop and improve occupational information and vocational guidance practices during the 1930s (the depression years) and the 1940s (the War years and returning veterans). It was apparent too, in Federal legislation including the George-Barden Act of 1946, the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and the amendments to that Act in 1968.

A New Focus: Guidance for Development

Although the personal adjustment theme for guidance continued to play a dominant role in guidance theory and practice through the 1960s, it was clear that substantial changes were beginning to be advocated by that time. The call for change in the 1960s came from diverse sources: writers who were interested in career guidance-career development (Ashcroft, 1966; Hoyt, 1974; Tennyson, Soldahl & Mueller, 1965); individuals who were concerned about the efficacy of the prevailing model of guidance (Borow, 1966;

Aubrey, 1969); writers who were concerned about program evaluation (Wellman & Twiford, 1961; Wellman, 1968); and individuals who advocated a developmental approach to guidance (Mathewson, 1962; Zaccaria, 1966). The call for change was reinforced by the accountability movement in education which had begun during the 1960s. As education was being called to be accountable for its outcome, so too was guidance.

Although the calls for change emanated from differing views of guidance, they converged around the need to define and implement guidance as a systematic program. This presented a problem, however, because traditional concepts of vocational guidance and of personal adjustment counseling emphasized techniques, not purposes or outcomes (Sprinthall, 1971). All was not lost, however, because by 1970 substantial preliminary work had been done in developing basic vocabulary and the other necessary constructs to define and implement guidance in systematic, comprehensive, developmental terms; as a program in its own right rather than as services, ancillary to other programs.

As early as 1961, Glanz (1961) identified and described several models for organizing guidance in a comprehensive way. Tiedeman and Field (1962) recommended that guidance be an integral part of education; that it have a developmental, liberating perspective. Similarly, Zaccaria (1965) described the use of developmental tasks as a basis for a programmatic theme for guidance.

Paralleling this work was the beginning application of systems thinking to guidance. Based on a nationwide survey of vocational guidance in 1968, the development of a systems model for vocational guidance was undertaken at the Center for Vocational Education in Columbus, Ohio (Campbell et al., 1971). Ryan (1969), Thoresen (1969), and Hosford and Ryan (1970) also proposed the use of systems theory and techniques to develop and implement comprehensive guidance programs.

In 1970, McDaniel proposed a model for guidance called Youth Guidance Systems. It was organized around goals, objectives, programs, implementation plans and designs for evaluation. Closely related to this model was the Comprehensive Career Guidance System (CCGS) developed by personnel at the American Institutes for Research (Jones, et al., 1971; Jones, et al., 1972). The CCGS was designed to systematically plan, implement and evaluate guidance programs. Systems thinking also undergirded Byan and Zeran's (1972) approach to the organization and administration of guidance services. They stressed the need for a systems approach to guidance to insure the development and implementation of an accountable program of guidance.

Additional support for systematically organized comprehensive guidance programs was provided by the development of State guides for integrating career development into the school curriculum in a number of States in the early 70s. One such guide was developed by the State of Wisconsin (Drier, 1971) in the summer of 1970 closely followed by the development of the California Model for Career Development in the summer of 1971 (California State Department, 1971). That same summer, the University of Missouri was awarded a U.S. Office of Education grant to assist each State, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico to develop models/guides to implement comprehensive career guidance, counseling and placement programs in local schools. By the time the Project ended in 1974, 44 States had developed some type of guide or model for developing and implementing comprehensive career guidance, counseling and placement in local schools. As this Project was unfolding, so too was career education. As a result, in a number of States, the guides/models under development were titled career education guides/models rather than career guidance guides/models.

Elements of a Systematic Comprehensive Guidance Program

By the early 1970s it was clear that the movement toward developing and implementing comprehensive guidance programs was well underway. Influenced by career development theory and research, the accountability/evaluation movement and systems thinking, the earlier promise of guidance for development began to take on form and substance. Career development theory and research offered the content and objectives (Herr & Cramer, 1972; Tennyson et al., 1975; Walz, Smith & Benjamin, 1974); systems thinking provided a way to plan, design and implement guidance programs (Ryan, 1969; Thoresen, 1969; Hosford & Ryan, 1970; Ryan & Zeran, 1972; McDaniel, 1970; Jones et al., 1971; Jones et al., 1972); and the emphasis on accountability/evaluation provided the impetus, knowledge and methods to evaluate guidance programs (O'Hare & Lasser, 1971; Mease & Benson, 1973; Wellman & Moore, 1975).

As the concept of guidance for development continued to emerge in the 1970s, it became obvious that one-to-one encounters between counselor and student were not adequate. The total education program — including all curriculum areas — would have to share one common objective: the total and integrated development of the individual. This common objective could be realized only with a dynamic structure which provides linkages between and among each individual's learning experiences. Collaborative planning by all staff members was needed. Counselors could no longer deliver guidance unilaterally; rather, they would team with teachers to design developmental learning experiences, to participate in the implementation of program components, and to provide information on the effectiveness of each component. Such a structure constitutes a guidance system — system referring to the interrelatedness of program components — which is self-correcting since it is possible at any time to identify the source of any system breakdown. The system is dynamic, encouraging program modification based on the decision data provided by the feedback process during, as well as after, program implementation. The comprehensive guidance system approach was launched.

A systematic, comprehensive guidance program is based upon and is shaped by a number of assumptions:

1. the program is student centered, based on student needs/desired outcomes
2. all students are beneficiaries of the program
3. the program is consistently implemented across student populations
4. the program is articulated throughout the student's enrollment
5. the program is developmental
6. the emphasis is on capacitating students to participate in their own development

7. interventions are growth/development oriented rather than problem oriented
8. the counselor is accountable for the outcome of program implementation

Finally, a systematic comprehensive guidance program has four major phases: Planning, Designing, Implementing and Evaluating. The following sections of the paper identify and describe those phases and their tasks. Successive presentation of phases and tasks appears to infer a linerity that is the antithesis of a comprehensive, systematic guidance program. Table I shows the interrelatedness of steps, and also shows that the evaluation and implementation phases are going on concurrently. This concurrence provides decision data during program implementation so heeded modifications can be installed early enough to insure attainment of objectives.

Planning

Probably the most neglected phase in current guidance programs is the planning phase. Planning requires 1) definition of the values that will circumscribe program efforts; 2) selection or development of a curriculum model based on these values; 3) statement of program goals based on the curriculum model; 4) determination of desired student outcome based on the program goals; 5) assessment of the extent to which the current program is attaining the desired outcome; and 6) establishment of priority outcome to be addressed at each developmental level. Each of these tasks is expanded below.

1. Statement of values. The initial step in planning is an analysis of the characteristics and values of the student population(s); (in most school districts there are subpopulations with some differences in characteristics and values, e.g., the handicapped, ethnic minorities, economically disadvantaged). Characteristics, values and opportunities of the community must be assessed also. From these assessments a statement of beliefs consistent with both student and community characteristics and values must be formulated. This serves as a template for program development. To illustrate, one community may value awareness of the subtle but pervasive forces that influence the nature and structure of work, whereas another community may believe that such awareness is relatively unimportant. These decisions must be made before an appropriate curriculum model can be selected.

2. Selection of a curriculum model. One of the reasons that results of guidance efforts frequently are obscure is that we have failed to realize that guidance does have a curriculum and that the curriculum can be defined, implemented and evaluated. As indicated in the first part of this paper, guidance curriculum models have been developed by State departments of education, by universities, and by research and development organizations. Individual school districts such as Huntington Beach and Grossmont (California) also have developed curriculum models. Although some modification may be needed, one or more of these models probably will provide a set of curriculum components consistent with and representative of the statement of values. For instance, California State's Model for Career Development Curriculum does address the value we used as an

TABLE I

Interrelated Components of a Comprehensive Systematic Guidance and Counseling Program

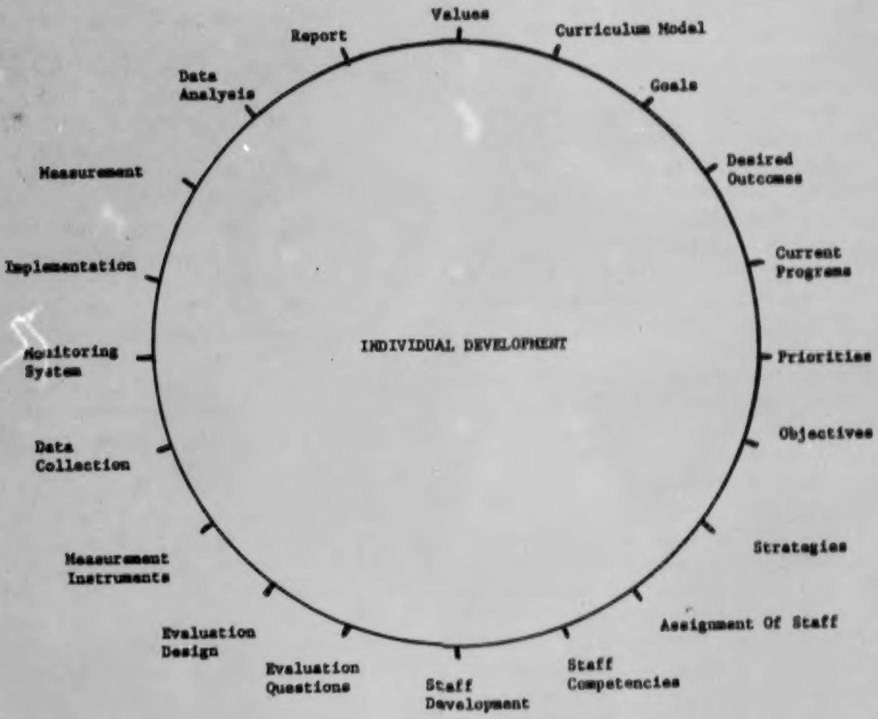

illustration in (1) above. The important task is to make sure that the curriculum model that emerges from this effort is consistent with and representative of the values of the student and community populations.

3. Statement of program goals. Having defined values curriculum components which will provide program focus, the next step is to state program goals. Goals are expressions of values to be pursued. They are broad and timeless — ideals toward which student learning is aimed. Goals usually define ideal terminal behavior for all students, e.g., "The goal is for students to understand how societal forces influence the nature and structure of work." A number of specific growth objectives addressing this ideal are needed for the student to demonstrate accomplishment of various subskills from which we could infer that s/he is moving toward the goal. The subskills are ordered in developmental sequence, and objectives covering these subskills are stated for students at various developmental levels. Thus, a goal may be addressed at several or all grade levels, but the objectives will be specific to each level.

4. Determination of desired student outcomes. The term "needs assessment" has been popularized without being fully defined and understood. A need implies a discrepancy between what is and what should be, yet few of the efforts termed "needs assessment" attempt to make this analysis; typically they consist only of an opinionnaire which asks respondents to decide what they think students need. Moreover, many needs assessment instruments are process oriented, with items such as "Students need to have access to a counselor." Others, although student outcome oriented, contain unrelated random items that almost defy efforts to organize them into consistent developmental programs. A comprehensive guidance program, on the other hand, provides linkages between and among program components, based on the interrelated values, curriculum and goals. This base defines the content and parameters of needs assessment instruments. A needs assessment has two components: assessment of desired outcomes and assessment of current program. Current program assessment is covered in (5) below.

Desired outcomes assessment instruments are developed by converting goal statements to desired outcome statements, e.g., changing the stem from "The goal is..." to "Students need...". Taking the goal stated in (3) above, one item in the desired outcomes assessment would be: "Students need to understand how societal forces influence the nature and structure of work." Each goal is translated into such an item, and the total group of items constitutes the instrument, which is administered to representative samples of all groups engaged in the education enterprise: students, teachers, administrators, support staff, parents, boards of education, and community business, industry, labor and government. Results of the assessment give a clear picture of the relative importance placed on each goal; however, since each goal is an outgrowth of the values of students and community, it is likely that all will be considered important, and that the assessment data will be used principally for prioritizing goals.

5. Assessment of current program. In order to complete the planning phase we need to know the extent to which the current program is helping students move toward the goals and the extent to which current program activities are addressing peripheral or less important outcomes. At this

point in our interactive system we recognize that many staff members' program efforts are addressing one or more priority goals. Assessment of current program, then, is not limited to counseling programs. A current program assessment instrument provides for each staff member to identify those priority student outcomes which s/he is currently addressing. Data from this assessment will furnish important information, e.g., a) which students are being exposed to instruction designed to reach each outcome; (usually you will find that whereas certain groups are being exposed, other groups at the same grade level are not receiving such instruction); b) which subskills are being taught, e.g., what the teachers see as important skills leading to attainment of each goal; c) which subjects and grade levels teachers feel are appropriate for introducing and/or developing these subskills; d) effective techniques and materials which teachers might share with other staff members; e) which staff members could provide staff development for other staff members; f) effective evaluation instruments and procedures; g) which peripheral and/or less important goals are consuming program effort, and h) where discrepancies exist between what is and what should be, and where major efforts are needed.

6. Establishment of priorities. The desired outcome assessment and the current program assessment furnish decision data, but they do not dictate decisions. From the results of administration of these two instruments for the school and for each grade level are prioritized. Priorities usually will be given to goals that rank reasonably high and also are being addressed by current instructional and/or guidance programs, and to those other goals that received strong support on the desired outcomes assessment. However, there may be reason not to address a specific high ranking goal; e.g., current resources may not make it feasible to pursue a particular goal. For instance, the goal for each student to learn a saleable skill may rank high, but the limitations of school and community resources may make pursuit of the goal difficult or impossible. Once priorities have been agreed upon, the Planning phase is completed and the Designing phase begins.

Designing

The Designing phase of a comprehensive school guidance and counseling program has several sequential but interactive tasks: 1) development of program objectives; 2) selection of program strategies; 3) assignment of program components: staff/time/place; 4) analysis of staff competencies; and 5) provision of staff development. Each of these components is expanded below.

1. Development of program objectives. For each goal, large numbers of student outcomes could be stated. The number and nature of objectives is determined by an analysis of the knowledges/skills necessary to reach the goal and appropriate to each grade level. For each knowledge/skill one or more developmental and sequential objectives will be stated. Take the goal used to illustrate program planning. This goal assumes a number of knowledges and skills, e.g., identification of societal agencies/institutions that influence the nature and structure of work; analysis of the forces each of these agencies/institutions exerts; status of and changes in the availability, need, tools and tasks of occupations; and a synthesis of these under-

standings. Each of these might be addressed at a different grade level, with the simple awareness objectives at lower grade levels, and the understanding and application objectives following at higher grades.

2. Selection of program strategies. Once objectives have been agreed upon, the next step is to select the program strategy that will be most effective in helping students reach the objective, with the least expenditure of resources (human, technological and material). A variety of strategies will be considered objectively before one is selected. If the selected strategy is presentation of the concept through a classroom unit, a search should be made to identify an appropriate classroom unit that has been developed, implemented, and, if possible, evaluated, instead of starting from scratch to develop a new unit.

3. Assignment of program components: staff/time/place. Program objectives are ordered in developmental sequence with indication of the appropriate levels for introduction, expansion and maintenance of each. Strategies have been selected. At this point three major decisions must be made: a) appropriate place for the strategy to be implemented (e.g., social studies classes, English classes, Guidance Office); b) in what segment of the school year the strategy will be introduced, how much time will be assigned to it, and by what date the instruction is to be completed; and c) which staff members will be responsible for implementation of the strategy.

4. Analysis of staff competencies. When you have decided which staff members will be implementing each strategy, you will want to determine what competencies these staff members will need. A competency analysis will identify those staff members who need staff development before implementation of their program component, and which competencies they need to develop. As with each other step of the system, the content is derived from the previous step, i.e., competencies are derived from selected strategies.

5. Provision of staff development. Staff development is provided as needed. It is inappropriate to provide a staff development program simply because a noted expert is available or because it's "time for another workshop." Rather, staff development should be planned around competencies needed to implement program strategies, and should be required of only those staff members who need those competencies to implement a program component. Others may participate voluntarily.

Implementing

The Implementing phase of a comprehensive guidance, counseling and follow-up system has three tasks: 1) administration of measurement instruments to establish baseline; 2) installation of program; 3) modification based on evaluation data. Each of these components is expanded below.

1. Administration of measurement instruments. Since a systematic program is based on interactive components, and since it is dynamic and self correcting, it logically must include an evaluation system. The evaluation design will permeate each phase of the system: Planning, Designing, Implementing and Evaluating, but for purposes of clarity it is treated separately in this paper. Part of the Evaluation phase, but crucial to the Implementation phase, is the administration of measurement instruments to

determine the extent of students' pre-knowledge of the area in which they are to be instructed. This furnishes baseline data and makes it possible later to determine the effectiveness of the program. The instruments are designed to test the presence or absence of the specific knowledges/skills to be taught.

2. Installation of program. Now you are ready to implement the program. Tracing our steps backward, we find that we have determined students' entry behavior in the area to be taught; we have developed staff based on competencies needed to implement the selected strategies; strategies have been selected to achieve objectives which address priority goals; goals are based on desired outcome assessment and current program assessment which were based on a curriculum model which in turn reflects identified values. Each step relates to each other step that precedes and follows it. This is the essence of a comprehensive systematic approach. It is planned rather than random. The program is implemented as planned and designed.

3. Modification based on evaluation data. Because the systematic program is interactive and because the Evaluation phase provides for continuous monitoring, feedback data make it possible to trace the effectiveness of the program during its implementation, and to make adjustments wherever necessary to insure attainment of objectives. Moreover, if a problem occurs it is possible to locate its source: faulty or incomplete implementation; inadequate staff development; selection of inappropriate strategy; inappropriate objectives statements, etc.

Evaluating

As indicated earlier, each phase of the system has its own evaluation tasks. Evaluation serves as the bonding agent that insures consistency and relatedness among parts. A good evaluation system is a good management system. Properly designed, the evaluation can detect any element that deviates from the plan. There are seven tasks in evaluation: 1) formulation of the question to be answered by the evaluation; 2) selection of evaluation design; 3) selection of measurement instruments; 4) development of procedures for data collection; 5) establishment of a monitoring system to provide en route data to decision makers; 6) performance of data reduction, summary and analysis tasks; and 7) preparation of reports including findings and analysis. Each of these tasks is expanded below.

1. Formulation of the questions to be answered by the evaluation. Before designing the evaluation you must decide what decisions are to be made. Evaluation is a matter of providing data for decisions. What are the questions behind the decisions? For instance, one question may be whether or not to continue a program component with or without modification. Another may be to determine whether the strategy is more effective with one subpopulation than with another. These questions will determine what data will be collected and how the data will be analyzed and reported.

2. Selection of evaluation design. The evaluation design defines the type of comparisons you will make — the standard you will use — to determine whether student growth can be ascribed to the program. The design may be an experimental/control, pretest/posttest; an experimental/control posttest only; comparison of student performance with normative data,

etc. Selection of the design will depend upon a number of factors. For purposes of this paper, it is sufficient to state that the evaluation design probably will provide for comparison of target student terminal performance with that of a comparison group, or with a specified norm or standard. This standard may be historical or trend data.

3. Selection of measurement instruments. This was treated under Implementing. The topic is repeated here to show its place in the total evaluation.

4. Development of procedures for data collection. Data collection sounds and seems so simple that it seldom gets the attention necessary to insure accuracy. A data collection procedure which optimizes objectivity, accuracy and promptness is imperative. Usually the implementers will be the data collectors, but the evaluator(s) will set up a simple, easy-to-follow data collection procedure.

5. Establishment of a monitoring system. To insure that everyone knows which task(s) s/he is responsible for and what is the target date for completion of that task, a Task/Talent/Time (T/T/T) analysis is prepared. This T/T/T includes a list of the tasks, who is responsible for completion of each, and the date by which the task will be completed. This makes it possible to track implementation and to identify any point at which the program is deviating from the plan. This constitutes a monitoring system that provides en route data to decision makers.

6. Performance of data reduction, summary and analysis tasks. As data become available (e.g., test scores, observation data) before, during, and after completion of the program, they will be processed and summarized so comparisons can be made and program effectiveness can be determined. Differences may be reported in terms of simple mean gains, but you may want to submit the gain scores to statistical analysis to determine whether or not the gains are significant enough to support inference that the program did make a difference and that this difference is not due to chance factors.

7. Preparation of reports. Preparation of reports is a final step of the comprehensive systematic approach to guidance. At this point findings and analyses are reported, together with conclusions and recommendations. Recommendations are derived from analysis of the extent to which the program objectives have been attained. Recommendations may be, for instance, to continue the program without change; to modify a specific component of the program to increase effectiveness; to exclude or include certain populations in the program; to change the objectives, etc. Reports furnish proof of student gains and will gain staff, student and community support for the program.

IMPACT ON STUDENTS

Without a comprehensive systematic guidance program it is difficult if not impossible to show consistent developmental impact on students. You may implement and evaluate several program components, but unless you can show their relationship to student and community values and goals, and present evaluative data that prove that the selected strategies effectively helped students attain objectives which moved them toward the goals, it will be difficult to justify continuation of the program. Systems data provide evidence of the linkages between and among the various phases and tasks and also provide information for en route correction in order to insure effectiveness, and evidence of impact.

A comprehensive systematic guidance and counseling program also determines where students are in their development and consistently helps them master each developmental step. It capacitates students to participate consciously in their own development by supplying them with the knowledges and skills necessary for effective self direction. It reaches all students on a regular basis, in an instructional mode, instead of concentrating on those students who are experiencing problems and/or who seek help. Self assessment skills, decision making skills, and skills needed to achieve compatibility between self and environment are taught. These latter skills include life mastery skills, but focus more on building students' capacity to acquire desired/needed personal characteristics and to effect desired/needed changes in their environment. These are life skills that all individuals need; we cannot afford to fail in our efforts to help all students acquire these skills. Only a self correcting, adequately evaluated systematic program can hope to capacitate all students at each developmental level.

IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELORS

A comprehensive system approach does have direct implications for counselors. It implies that counselors are change agents; that they are members of the instructional staff with a specific curriculum; that they either have or can acquire the competencies necessary to implement and manage a comprehensive systematic program; that they are members of an educational team; that they can employ a variety of delivery systems; and that they can perform evaluation functions. It also implies that their emphasis is developmental rather than remedial, that all students are beneficiaries of the program, and that counselors' greatest psychic feedback comes from seeing evidence of student gains.

To the extent that the above implications do not apply to an individual counselor, that counselor will need to plan for change in order to participate as a comprehensive guidance program. Although this paper is addressed to counselors, and this subsection addresses implications for counselors, it is obvious that a comprehensive guidance and counseling program cannot function in isolation. Changes in the school organization and in functions of other staff members also are needed to achieve the desired collaboration.

It is assumed that all counselors would find such a comprehensive system challenging, desirable and rewarding. The principal difficulty encountered in a transition from a "cubicle counseling" one-on-one, reactive/responsive approach only to a comprehensive systematic approach is that of weaning students, staff, parents and self from traditional expectations, and supplanting these with expectations for instruction in a planned guidance curriculum. That this transition can be made is evidenced by those who have accomplished it.

It would be naive to assume that this transition is easy, automatic, or rapid. Successful transition appears to be based on a number of factors:

1. all staff members are involved in the Planning phase
2. all staff members are committed to the common objective: total and integrated development of individual students
3. the administration is committed to the comprehensive approach and is willing to negotiate "trade-off" – helping staff identify current activities that do not contribute to priority outcomes, and supporting staff members' abandonment of such activities in favor of those that do not contribute to priority outcomes
4. all staff members see the comprehensive systematic counseling and guidance program as a function of the total staff, rather than the exclusive responsibility of the counselors
5. counselors are willing to give up such "security blankets" as writing lengthy reports of their contacts with counselees, or seeing counselees individually on matters better addressed in a group
6. counselors are interested in acquiring new competencies
7. staff development activities to help staff members acquire competencies needed for successful implementation of a comprehensive program are provided
8. time is made available for planning and designing the program and the evaluation, with all interested groups participating (students, parents, teachers, counselors, administrators, community)
9. program developers design an incremental transition rather than abrupt transition which ignores the need for continuing many current activities and thrusts

Although all nine of these factors are important to successful transition from the status quo to a comprehensive systematic guidance and counseling program, none is more important than the last. Abrupt change is difficult and anxiety-producing; it tends to cause participants in the change to build barriers against it.

SCHOOL GUIDANCE PERSONNEL PREPARATION

The continuing shift toward a developmental approach to guidance and counseling in the schools impacts directly on the preparation of guidance personnel who work in school settings. As a result, changes will be required in training program philosophy, goals, instruction and content to meet the needs of these practitioners. Thus, it is recommended that preparation for school guidance personnel include provisions for insuring that they can:

1. develop and implement a systematic, comprehensive guidance program
2. use a variety of behavior change techniques including individual and group counseling
3. use assessment procedures and techniques
4. organize and manage information
5. mobilize educational and community resources
6. consult effectively.

LEGISLATIVE THRUSTS

The emerging changes now occurring in the theory and practice of guidance and counseling in the schools mandates a new approach to Federal and State legislation for guidance and counseling. It is recommended that work be undertaken now to creating comprehensive Federal legislation for guidance and counseling. Guidance and counseling cannot continue to be simply listed in the many pieces of legislation dealing with manpower and education without attention being given to needed coordination and consolidation. What is needed now is a Federal Comprehensive Guidance and Counseling act that clearly establishes guidance and counseling as a major program in the school; not as an ancillary supportive service. At the State level work must continue on mandating programs of guidance.

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The Practice of Counseling in the Elementary School

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The emergence of the elementary school counselor is one of the most important developments in guidance and counseling in the United States. Beginning with the premise that all children have basic guidance needs that are unique to their development and learning effectiveness, elementary school counselors have increased in numbers and more people are beginning to take an interest in their work.

Until recently, guidance services were viewed as having their place in the secondary schools. High school counselors and teachers were concerned typically with assisting students to gain their independence from parents, and other adults, and to make vocational choices. Helping students select an appropriate curriculum, making schedule changes, and working with adjustment problems became the predominant functions of most counselors. More often than not, high school counselors have tended to focus on the students who are having academic difficulties or who are failing to get along with others.

In contrast, the elementary school student is still dependent upon parents and significant adults, and is less concerned with making educational and vocational choices. Until the last decade, guidance activities in the elementary school were considered the sole responsibility of the classroom teacher. Teachers at that level, fortunately, are not as subject-oriented as their secondary colleagues and they have been better prepared to focus on personal development. But, it has been the elementary school counselor who has led the way in demonstrating the importance of early intervention and the need for organized guidance services.

The Counselor and Developmental Guidance

Developmental guidance is one approach by the school to personalize and humanize the educational process for all students. This involves a cooperative effort on the part of all school personnel to assist children to understand themselves and others better, their opportunities, their responsibilities and the choices that education and life provide them. Guidance for all children is a vital component of the total education experience.

While teachers are the most important person in the guidance process, it is necessary to recognize the complementary role of other guidance personnel. Such additional personnel are essential if elementary schools are to provide the maximum opportunities for learning and to enable all children to learn according to their own particular abilities and within their own developmental process.

An elementary school counselor is a professional person who is educationally oriented, highly knowledgeable in the area of child growth and development, and with a multi-disciplinary background in the behavioral sciences. With a broad understanding of human nature and with skills in interpersonal relations, the counselor provides a variety of guidance and counseling functions related to the developmental needs of students. The counselor is a guidance specialist and, more specifically, a behavior and relationship specialist. As a member of an elementary school staff or faculty, the counselor has three primary responsibilities: counseling, consulting, and coordinating. Counseling and consultation takes place, both individually and in groups, with students, teachers, administrators, and parents. The counselor also helps coordinate school and community resources for guidance.

The Growth of Elementary School Counseling

Although guidance specialists were present in elementary schools as early as 1930, they existed in only a few metropolitan cities and the activities of the counselor were different from those of today. In the early 1950s a national survey revealed that there were 711 counselors working in elementary schools in the United States and that approximately 408 of these gave one half of their time to counseling and guidance duties. Two other research projects also took place during 1953 and 1954, but the sampling procedures of schools and states were so limited that it was difficult to assess the national scope of elementary school counselors who were employed. The U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare conducted another study and this was reported in Guidance Services in Elementary Schools (1966) by Smith and Erickson. The data, however, were limited to a sample of schools and the research attempted to discover the number of "child development consultants" who were working in schools. The term "child development consultants" proved inadequate and eventually it included a number of different specialists (e.g., counselors, school psychologists and social workers).

Until 1967 little information was collected and published that assessed the growth and national status of elementary school guidance. Most statements consisted of rough estimates and educated guesses. VanHoose and his associates (1968, 1970, 1972) conducted some national surveys. They found that in 1967 there were approximately 3,837 elementary school counselors in 48 states. Only 22 percent of these counselors were supported by state and local funds. By 1969 there were elementary school counselors employed in all 50 states, with a national total of about 6,041. About 36 percent were supported by state and local funds. By 1971 the total number of elementary school counselors had grown to 7,982, of which 67 percent were supported by state and local funding. These studies provided new and important information, but the data were collected regionally rather than on a state by state basis and could only be viewed as an estimate.

It was the decade of the 1960s that proved most productive. Some significant developments occurred during this time. Elementary School Guidance and Counseling (a quarterly journal published by the American School Counselor Association, with a circulation of approximately 18,000 copies) appeared, elementary guidance vice-presidents were elected to ASCA's

Governing Board, the National Defense Education Act provided elementary guidance and counseling training institutes, consultants for elementary guidance were appointed in departments of education, and in several states national conferences on elementary school guidance were sponsored. In addition, there were many pilot and experimental programs. Ironically, during this period of rapid growth there was no annual report regarding the number of school counselors in the United States and there was no systematic effort by either the professional organizations or the U.S. Office of Education to assess the status of elementary school guidance.

Myrick and Moni (1976) completed the last published survey of elementary school counselors and the first to involve all of the fifty state departments of education in the United States. Some kind of report was eventually received from 49 states, although the data were sometime limited either because it was not available or because records were incomplete. In a few instances, telephone calls were made in order to request estimates or clarify the data. The data indicated that there are approximately 10,770 counselors (K-6) in the public elementary schools during the year 1976. Thus the ratio of counselors to schools in the United States may be estimated as one counselor for every six elementary schools.

Data on the number of counselors who are working in more than one school was difficult to obtain. At least ten states reported that more than 50 percent of all counselors were working in more than one school (e.g., Oklahoma 96%, Delaware 93%, North Carolina 85%, Kansas 80%, Montana 76%, Maryland 68%, West Virginia 64%, Wisconsin 63%, and Tennessee 56%). When counselors are asked to serve in more than one school they often feel overwhelmed with responsibilities and frequently face accountability problems. Under these circumstances their work is spread thin and counselor activities are minimal. Counselors working full-time in one school, on the other hand, are in a better position to increase their visibility and have greater impact in the school.

The same study also revealed that some states have made greater efforts than others in an attempt to provide an adequate number of counselors. Using the total number of counselors and elementary schools in a state it was possible to identify the ratio of counselors and elementary schools in a state it was possible to identify the ratio of counselors to schools and the percentage of schools served. For example, Florida led all states with 782 counselors to 1,276 schools which was an average of one counselor per 1.7 schools (61%). This was followed respectively by Arizona 37%, Tennessee 36%, New Hampshire 36%, Alabama 32%, Kentucky 28%, New York 26%, New Mexico 25%, Pennsylvania 24%, Iowa 24%, North Carolina 23%, Illinois 22%, and Oklahoma 20%. States with significantly low percentages of schools with counselors were Alaska 2%, and West Virginia 3%, followed by Nebraska, Nevada, North Dakota, South Dakota, Arkansas, Idaho, Delaware, Michigan, Kansas, Vermont, and Montana.

The National Defense Education Act and Title III stimulated the development of guidance during the 1960s and early 1970s. Unfortunately, when projects were completed and federal money was withdrawn many guidance programs and counselors disappeared. Some counselors were employed under different grants and some even took different titles. In other cases, programs were developed well enough for counselors to be able to demonstrate their importance and these programs became a regular part of the local school budget. However, these positions are frequently jeopardized during difficult economic times and budgets are reduced.

Within the past few years there have been more attempts to obtain financial support for elementary school counselors through state legislation. Although legislation varies from one state to another and while each state develops its own formula, those states currently involved with strong legislative efforts include Florida, Utah, Arkansas, Texas, Alabama, South Carolina, North Carolina, Kansas, Minnesota, Delaware, Georgia, North Dakota, Arizona, Tennessee, Pennsylvania, Louisiana, Missouri, Maryland, Virginia, Mississippi and Colorado. If these legislative efforts are successful a significant increase in the number of elementary school counselors within the next three years can be expected.

THE RATIONALE AND NEED FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COUNSELORS

Historically speaking the American people have always believed in an educational system that will provide a continuing supply of citizens who are educated, responsible, and productive. Our schools, both private and public, have been dedicated to helping students develop their individual capacities and to realize their aspirations. No other citizenry in the world has reached as high an educational level and no other country has achieved such economic growth and productivity. The education of many, rather than a few, has been the priceless philosophical asset that has made our society unique and strong.

Interestingly enough, no other country has developed guidance to what it is in America. Why is this so? One reason is that the root of our heritage is tied to the importance of the individual. Our country was founded on the principle that every human being is of value and has the right to optimum development. Consequently, educational programs have embraced the concept that each child should be assisted to develop according to his or her own unique growth pattern. Educational programs are considered most effective when they begin with where the child is and then help that child become a fully-functioning person and a contributing member of society. Thus, contemporary educators have focused on the intellectual, social and personal development of children, realizing that all three are inherently linked together and related to learning effectiveness.

Guidance has been identified as that part of the educational process which emphasizes the individual, helping reconcile the uniqueness of the individual with the demands of our society and culture. If we are to realize the maximum potential of individuals and, subsequently, our society, then guidance must begin at an early age. Moreover, if children are to obtain the maximum benefit from guidance services, then these services must be comprehensive, developmental in nature, and coordinated in such a way that continuity is assured as the child progresses from one educational level to the next.

Guidance and Social Change

The American people are proud of their achievements and we have a society that is the most advanced in the history of the world. Yet, some mistakenly believe that what worked yesterday will continue to work tomorrow. These people fail to consider the rapid change that our society is experiencing. It is so swift a change that it caused Toffler to remark, "Yesterday's truths suddenly become today's fictions. Even the most highly skilled and intellectual members of our society readily admit that they have difficulty in keeping up with the diluge of new knowledge — even in their extremely narrow fields of specialization."

Dr. Robert Hillard, broadcasting specialist for the Federal Communications Commission has said, "At the rate in which knowledge is growing, by the time a child born today graduates from college the amount if knowledge in the world will be four times as great. By the time that same child is fifty years old it will be thirty-two times as great and 97 percent of everything known in the world will have been learned since the time he was born."

This knowledge explosion has given us a technology that has provided us with many material gifts, but it has also brought about cultural lags and has led to various social problems. Elementary school counselors can play a vital role in helping confront these problems. For example, problems that need attention are:

Drug Abuse. Drug abuse is a serious problem at all levels and at all ages in our society. A broad array of chemical substances — aspirin, alcohol, tranquilizers, marijuana — allay the anxiety and insecurity of contemporary life.

- It has been estimated that no less than 81 percent of students have tried some form of a drug.
- While estimates of drug use among youth vary widely, some authorities claim that the usages in drug abuse is anywhere from 5 to 35 percent in a school's population.
- A recent survey among students reported from 50 to 90 percent of their friends smoke marijuana.
- The National Commission on marijuana and drug abuse reported that 14 percent of American youth (from 12 to 17 years old) and 16 percent of adults (18 years and older) have experimented with marijuana for nonmedical purposes.
- The age of drug users appears to be dropping raipdly, reaching down into elementary schools.
- As drug use becomes more and more popular, the young are building a culture in a self-perpetuating, self-approving rationale of their own around drug use.

An elementary school counselor can provide leadership in drug education at the elementary level where basic attitudes are formed.

Vocational and Career Development. The process of choosing one's life career is becoming increasingly complex. There are many possibilities from which to choose and many steps that need to be taken to assure success.

- Unwise choices lead to personal tragedies and a loss of productivity to society.
- Three out of every ten students who begin high school do not graduate and are often lacking in marketable skills.
- Students entering the world of work can expect to change jobs six or

seven times in their lifetime.

- Many of today's jobs will be non-existent in the future and there will be thousands of new jobs not yet conceptualized.
- Attitudes toward work are generally established before junior high years.

The elementary school counselor can provide experiences which could create an early awareness of the world of work and initiate a sequential program of career development.

Cultural Differences. Many schools are still in the process of integrating minority groups into the main stream of society. The past decade saw demands to correct social inequities. This revolution moved from relatively passive protests to angry and, in some cases, destructive actions.

- Schools are interested in plans which will create new school environments and integrate minority groups. Frequently parents, teachers and children experience stress and emotional conflict which are related to these changes.
- Integration and the understanding of cultural differences play a significant role in the education of elementary school children.

The elementary school counselor can assist parents, teachers and students in developing interpersonal relationships which are essential to understanding and satisfactory adjustment.

The Changing Family. Rapid changes in society have resulted in new patterns of family living.

- In the United States one out of every five families moves each year.
- In Florida alone, for example, from October to April each year approximately 41,000 migrant children enroll.
- One of every three mothers in the nation is working, and in one of every five families the mother is not home when the children return from school.
- The divorce rate is climbing and there is almost one divorce for every two marriages.
- There is a trend for the average interpersonal relationship to be shorter in duration.

The elementary school counselor can provide support and encouragement to children during critical transitions in their lives.

Juvenile Delinquency. Juvenile delinquency, a pervasive social problem, continues to reach new heights. Unfortunately, a delinquent act frequently represents a solution to some children.

- Over one million young people were seen in the juvenile courts last year. Three times this number had police contacts and concealed delinquent behavior is even more prevalent at all social class levels than ever before.
- More than one half of all the serious crimes in the United States are committed by youths age 10 to 17.
- Since 1960 juvenile crime has risen twice as fast as that of adults.
- More girls are creating violent crimes, with a 40 percent increase from 1970 to 1975.
- Every year in the United States over one hundred thousand children age 7 to 17 are held in jails or places of detention.
- A majority of delinquents commit their first offense prior to the age of ten.

- In one state, for example, the Division of Youth Services reported that it pays an average of $23.78 per resident per day in training school and $13.98 in halfway houses, for a total of over eight million dollars a year.
- The latent criminal in the delinquency prone child can be identified with an 80 to 90 percent accuracy at the first grade level.

The elementary school counselor can help prevent delinquency through programs of early identification, appropriate referrals, and through the implementation of programs for behavioral change.

Emotional Disturbance. Despite numerous agencies which are concerned with the problems of mental health, emotional disturbance continues to be an acute problem in both schools and society.

- In every school it is estimated that between 10 to 15 percent of the children suffer emotional disorders serious enough to warrant professional attention. In some areas 25 percent represents a more realistic figure.
- Only 30 percent of all children referred to outside community agencies can be seen because of long waiting lists. Of these only 20 percent can continue beyond the initial stage of treatment.
- Schools are currently not staffed with enough personnel who are trained and who have the time to meet the needs of emotionally disturbed children.

The elementary school counselor can help prevent mental health problems through early identification and intervention by counseling with the child, consulting with teachers and parents, and coordinating school and community resources.

School Problems. Schools need guidance services which maximize the use of human potential and which make the most of financial resources. Three areas which can benefit from special attention are discipline, school dropouts and the non-promotion of students.

- A national poll shows that parents consider discipline and delinquency to be the greatest difficulties our schools face today. Many outstanding teachers leave the profession because of their frustration with discipline problems.
- According to last year's FBI reports, 700,000 teachers were assaulted in U.S. schools. Many assaults were not reported.
- It is estimated that the average cost of vandalism to an average metropolitan school district is approximately $100,000 a year. The cost of vandalism reaches over $600,000,000 a year in the United States.
- More than half of all school dropouts have average or above average intelligence, but are underachievers.
- It has been estimated that in New York alone, every day there are over 200,000 children who are truant.
- In one state approximately 50,000 students, including about 10,000 first graders, failed to earn promotion. It cost the state approximately $36,000,000 to have these students repeat that grade. Had it been possible to reduce the first grade failure rate by 50 percent, a savings of more than $17,000,000 would have resulted, which is enough money to construct and equip 1,000 new classrooms or pay for 4,000 new classroom teachers.

The elementary school counselor can develop and organize guidance services which help correct problems that interfere with learning and a disliking of school.

Children Need Help at an Early Age

The most favorable time for attacking school and social problems is during the early formative years. Research shows that about 50 percent of a child's intellectual development occurs between conception and age 4, 30 percent between ages 4 and 8, and 20 percent from ages 8 to 17. Other studies of child development have shown that children establish life-long behavioral patterns during ages 6 through 10...the first four years of school!

Parents, Teachers and Principals Need Help

Parents and teachers and principals need help in resolving problems. Out of frustration many parents are turning to the school for support and assistance in child rearing practices. They want to be better parents and many are frustrated with the problems that confront today's youth. In addition, teachers and principals often lack the necessary preparation and time to cope with problems of the contemporary child. In many instances they are overwhelmed by pressures to update materials, expand the curriculum, develop new learning approaches, relate with large numbers of students, and, at the same time, meet individual needs. Because of these responsibilities they need help in developing an organized guidance program which can be incorporated into the curriculum and give more intensive help to children.

What is the general role of the counselor in the elementary school? What functions are performed? What are some of the typical approaches and techniques that are used?

THE ROLE AND FUNCTION OF AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COUNSELOR

Havighurst has defined a developmental task as "a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to happiness and success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by society, and difficulty with later tasks." Developmental tasks have been identified for the elementary school student and these might serve as guidelines for developing a guidance program. In addition, it has also been suggested that children move through developmental stages in which a pattern of behaviors are common, or a series of typical tasks are encountered. Developmental tasks may provide identifiable goals for guidance, but more often than not they are simply a checklist of short term objectives which are part of the educational process. Within this framework most schools have identified similar goals for the counselors. For example:

1) To assist the staff in the development of children's potential for their own personal happiness and the welfare of society by:
   (a) increasing self-understanding and understanding of others

    - (b) Encouraging them to achieve at a level commensurate with their ability
    - (c) aiding their social development and their acquisition of skills related to interpersonal relations
    - (d) developing positive but realistic self-perceptions
    - (e) broadening their knowledge of the world of work
    - (f) encouraging favorable attitudes toward education and school
    - (g) increasing their ability to make decisions
    - (h) increasing their emotional control and self-reliance

2) To assist the staff in improving parents' understanding of their children.
    - (a) working with parents for an increased awareness of their role in the child's development
    - (b) helping interpret the school's program

3) To assist the staff in understanding individual student needs
4) To work with the staff in developing an environment which is conducive to good mental health and which enhances the learning climate for all students.
5) To aid the staff in the early identification of children's intellectual, emotional, social and physical characteristics.
6) To assist in coordinating the efforts of special school services and community resources which meet the needs of students.
7) To facilitate a smooth transition for children between grade levels.
8) To help develop a variety of resource materials to be used for classroom guidance activities.

A guidance program is composed of a wide range of services offered by administrators, teachers, counselors and other pupil personnel specialists. No doubt the services provided will continue to be unique in terms of a particular school situation. If they are developmental in nature and concerned with all children, however, the services will be provided primarily by teachers. Nevertheless, it is recognized that a school will need the services of a developmental elementary school counselor.

In 1969 a joint statement was prepared by an ACES-ASCA committee to help clarify the responsibilities of an elementary school counselor. These two professional divisions (Association for Counselor Education and Supervision - American School Counselor Association) of the American Personnel and Guidance Association agreed that the counselor would perform three primary functions: counseling, consultation and coordination.

Counseling

Counseling has often been described as the heart of a guidance program. It is in counseling that students are accepted without conditional restrictions. Counseling provides the unique experience of a relatively non-evaluative, non-threatening environment where ideas can be expressed and explored openly.

The basic premise of counseling is that in the security of a close relationship students will be able to explore their feelings, values, perceptions of others and interpersonal relationships. They can look more realistically at their fears and life choices. From this exploration comes more insight, self-awareness, role clarification, planning, and changes in behavior. While school counselors may differ on the actual process of counseling, many would agree that the desired outcome is self-understanding and self-direction.

In some instances counselors work with students when they have a problem. Some students need help in adjusting to school. In the light of the developmental approach, however, counseling can and should be more than crisis-centered. There will be times when the counselor's task is to help students learn more coping strategies in advance of crises. In developmental counseling the counselor may initiate meetings with students to help stimulate and mobilize personal energies and resources. For example, the counselor may use small group counseling to discuss and analyze a particular topic, such as making friends or overcoming the fear of trying something new. Special attention is given to feelings, behaviors, alternatives, and consequences.

Counseling can take place with individuals or in groups. For the most part the counselor prefers to work in groups. Much of what is learned by children is learned in groups so new learnings and "unlearnings" are probably best effected through groups. In addition, the student-counselor ratio is high in most situations and a group approach enables the counselor to reach the maximum number of children and make the most use of counselor time. Peer influence is a powerful and underrated variable in the development of a child's personality and potential. In groups children can give and receive feedback which contributes to an understanding of themselves and others.

There are, of course, some children who are not ready for group work and who must receive individual counseling. These children usually have extreme problems in relating to other children and are overwhelmed in a group situation. Sometimes a child meets with a counselor individually because of the nature of a problem, perhaps one that needs more confidentiality. In addition, there are children who are so hyperactive or who are so personally dysfunctioning that they need the experience of individual counseling to prepare them for working with other children in groups.

While groups can be problem-centered, the developmental elementary school counselor will frequently provide group experiences designed to help children learn skills for everyday living. When problem-solving and communication skills are learned early then some potential difficulties can be avoided. Moreover, if children have experienced a developmental group in which they learn coping skills, when a problem does develop they then have more personal resources in which to resolve the problem. Counselors also realize that developmental work can take place in large groups and many times in the classroom, especially when the counselor and teacher collaborate on a guidance unit.

Coordinating

Too many times there are caring people who attempt, in separate ways, to affect a child's learning. By performing a coordinating function the counselor can help bring a meaningful pattern to the efforts of these individuals. For instance, when it is apparent that a child's behavior is intensely disturbing or severely disorganized the counselor may want to refer that child to the school psychologist or some appropriate helping agency. Knowing when and how to refer a child is an important counselor skill and part of the coordinating function. The counselor will also help coordinate the testing program, vocational information, and perhaps peer facilitator activities.

Coordinating the contributions of the several professionals can help avoid duplication. It can also bring in people who have more time or who are more qualified to work with a particular case. For example, while counselors are usually trained to administer individual intelligence tests, it is a better use of their time if they can use a psychometrist. After examining the test results, the counselor may then want to call upon the school psychologist or special education personnel to consider and develop plans. Sometimes outside agencies can provide the support necessary to a family in order to help a child. It may involve therapy, rehabilitation, or welfare assistance. The counselor uses case conferences to coordinate the several services available. Perhaps the most important aspect of the coordination function is that the counselor assumes responsibility for a multi-disciplinary approach that draws upon more strengths and, subsequently, brings a more systematic and powerful intervention to a situation.

Consultation

While counseling and coordination are important functions, it appears that one of the most significant roles that the counselor can perform is that of being a consultant. Through consultation the counselor can reach all children. Until teacher preparation programs change, consultation with teachers and other school personnel will continue to be most important. Many classroom teachers are not prepared to provide guidance services. They are not skilled in building effective learning climates. They lack the knowledge of developing effective teacher student relationships. In general, most teachers can use the help of a relationship specialist in learning new ways of responding and relating to children.

The counselor is not a teacher critic, rather the counselor collaborates with teachers. With the help of the counselor, teachers can help children feel more self-esteem and self-worth as they learn more information and academic skills.

Children need practice in verbalizing and clarifying their feelings and ideas. One place to practice is in the classroom. Children also need more positive reinforcement for their efforts, and, beyond that, for being the unique human beings that they are. They need more encouragement at a time when they can feel their personal worth and value and not just in relation to a product they produce. They need praise at a time when they can see themselves other than a commodity to be produced by the school. Students need an opportunity to learn about their emotional and their cognitive self. They need to become more aware of their exciting potential. When a child brings the whole self to the learning situation — both cognitive and affective — more effective learning takes place.

Within the developmental approach the elementary school counselor is not, then, a passive agent of change. The counselor does not sit in an isolated office in some little known place in the school, waiting for children to voluntarily drop in or to be referred. Rather than wait for children and teachers to come to the guidance office, the counselor meets with them where the business of learning is taking place — in the classroom, on the playground, and even the cafeteria. The counselor initiates guidance activities and asserts his or herself in the counselor functions.

It is interesting to note that counselors need not be committed to the same counseling theory or selected techniques. It is generally recognized that the counselor is a person who is characterized by an interest in children, who has patience, and who is sensitive to others' attitudes and behaviors. The counselor must be emotionally stable and be able to be objective. More often than not, a counselor's effectiveness is determined by the ability to create conditions conducive to counseling and consultation. These helping conditions include warmth, understanding, respect, acceptance, and genuineness. If the counselor is skilled in interpersonal relationships then the three primary roles cited above can be performed to some degree of success. The eventual effectiveness of all counselors will probably be determined by their own personal characteristics, energy, professional commitment and the priority they give to counselor activities.

The Counselor's Schedule. A weekly schedule can help define the counselor's role and functions. Although varying from one counselor to another, and from week to week, the weekly schedule provides some idea of how a counselor's time is used and the services that are provided. Figure 1 is an example of one schedule which was organized by identifying functions and priorities.

Consultation with teachers was given top priority (Figure 1) with 30 percent or 10-1/2 hours of the total weekly time. Consultation (TC) was scheduled around grade level planning meetings. Before and after school, and during physical education, music and art, were convenient times for teachers. This time was used for in-service meetings, teacher seminars, planning classroom guidance activities and review of case studies.

Classroom guidance was given 13 percent of the time. Guidance units included such topics as self-awareness, friendship, cooperation, values and decision-making. The counselor worked cooperatively with teachers and the units were made up of activities extended over four or five weeks.

Individual and group counseling are also high priorities. In Figure 1 groups listed (involved such programs as DUSO, Magic Circle and Vlues Clarification Feelings Classes) in which behaviors, feelings, and problem-solving skills were examined. Four groups met in two thirty-minute sessions per week which took approximately 11 percent of the counselor's time or four hours per week. Individual counseling also took 11 percent of the counselor's time. This consisted of meeting with four individuals twice a week for thirty minutes.

Parent consultation consumed 11 percent of the counselor's time including scheduling meetings for before and after school. In some weeks the counselor arranged parent groups at night and this provided more time for other activities during the schedule.

Flexible time (FT) (approximately 24 percent) was also scheduled. This time usually involves activities which includes administrative duties (e.g., supervision of cumulative folders, testing, processing referrals, staffing, working with crisis situations, student self-referrals and planning monthly activities such as evaluations and teacher in-service programs. Faculty meeting, county level meetings, collaboration with other pupil personnel

Figure 1

Counselor Weekly Schedule

Week of ____________
to ____________

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
8:00	Parent Consultation	TC	FT Social Worker Visit Case Conferences	Parent	TC
8:30		Individual 3			
9:00	Teacher Consultation (TC) Team 5	Flexible Time (FT)		FT	FT
9:30		Individual 4		Classroom (7) Guidance	Individual 4
10:00	Group 1 - Values Clarification	Group 3 - Peer Facilitators	Group 1	FT	Group 3
10:30	Individual 1	FT	TC - Team 4	Individual 1	Class 9
11:00	Classroom (1) Guidance	Classroom (3) Guidance		TC - Team K	TC - Team 3
11:30	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch		
12:00	Individual 2	Classroom (4) Guidance	Individual 2	Lunch	Lunch
12:30	Group 1 - Feelings Class	FT	Group 2	TC	FT
1:00	Teacher Consultation (TC) Team 1	Group 4 - Problem Solving	FT	FT	Group 4
1:30		FT	TC	Classroom (8) - Guidance	FT
2:00	Class 2	TC - Team 3	Classroom (6) Guidance	FT	
2:30	Parent Consultation		Teacher Guidance Seminars	Individual TC	Parent Consultation
3:00					
3:30					

staff and research time were also included in one portion of the schedule.

The weekly schedule, of course, may change from time to time and there are adjustments. But, the scheduling of guidance and counseling activities helps the counselor make more efficient use of time and, subsequently, more productive. Through guidance programming there are fewer interruptions and others have a better idea of what the counselor is attempting to do.

THE FUTURE OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COUNSELING

What are some of the critical concerns facing the development of elementary school counseling? Here are a few that need attention if the elementary school counseling is to survive and to continue to grow.

Stability. Despite the evidence that an elementary school counselor can make a difference many counselors are employed on a temporary basis. The "here-today-and-gone-tomorrow" syndrome exists when counselors are dependent upon funds from an agency outside the local school system. During difficult economic times these counselors struggle to survive budget cutbacks. Unfortunately, too many have positions that are tied to "soft money" or money that results from a particular grant or project. When grants or projects are terminated, and most are limited to a time period, the counselor's position is sometimes eliminated. During the past decade more school systems employed counselors out of their local budgets, but still the majority of elementary schools do not have their own counselor who is a part of the local school budget.

There is no doubt that funds from special grants or projects can help initiate a counselor-led guidance program. If the program is acceptable and deemed valuable, the local system might then add the position to the annual budget. In a few situations counselors have continued their employment under another funding source after the first one has expired. Sometimes it involves a change of title or the assumption of other unrelated duties.

Without stability counselors do not have the time to develop a program that incorporates both short and long range goals. It is difficult to provide evidence of success when a program gets underway and then is ended abruptly. It takes time to develop a guidance program that can make a significant impact and meet the needs of a school population.

Without stability, leadership is often lacking. Leadership emerges with experience and job security. If counselors are fearful of losing their position for lack of funds they many times spend a lot of their energies looking for other opportunities or worrying about the uncertain future, rather than focusing their attention on counseling and guidance opportunities. This personal restlessness can detract from the efforts that are needed to build a firm foundation for a guidance program.

Visibility. With stability counselors can then gain more visibility. There are still many people, including principals and teachers, who do not understand the functions of an elementary school counselor. They have misconceptions based on their limited experience with other kinds of counselors. Because the elementary school counselor position is relatively new it cannot be taken for granted. Counselors cannot become passive or apathetic, rather, they must tell parents and the community what they are doing. This might be done through local television shows, newspaper stories, PTA meetings, films and tape slide presentations and school visitations. Selling elementary school guidance and counseling has become an important role of the counselor,

As visibility increases more people understand the importance of guidance and counseling at an early age. They also learn that guidance is for all children, and that, while some may receive more attention than others, all children benefit. With increased visibility the public, as well as the school faculty, will accept the role of the counselor and perceive the position as an important part of education. The idea of the counselor as a fad or a frill will only pass when people learn more about the position.

In addition, increased visibility also helps make the counselor more responsive to children, teachers, parents and the community. People want to know what is taking place in their schools. They need to know. And, they often respond with more support when they learn how the counselor's work can make a difference.

Support. More support for elementary school counseling is needed in two respects. First, counselors work most effectively and make a positive difference when they are supported by their faculties and administrations. It is the task of the counselor to help educate administrators about their job and help them justify the counselor's position. When they do not understand sometimes duties are assigned that make the counselor more of an administrative assistant than a specialist in guidance. Principals, for instance, set the tone for a school climate. Without their understanding and support a counselor cannot adequately provide a developmental guidance program. Moreover, without teacher support a counselor's work will be very limited and will not reach the many children who need the guidance services.

Support also means adequate funding. Professional organizations are encouraging school districts to employ a counselor in each elementary school. If this were to be realized a dramatic increase in the number of counselors would take place. Ideally, of course, local school boards would have enough foresight to provide the necessary funds. However, professional associations also recognize that local funds are limited and that working with state legislators to provide categorical funding for elementary school counseling is one way to assure that children in a state are provided the essential guidance services. Several states are now considering such legislation.

Federal legislation and financial support is another possible solution to help promote elementary school guidance. Initially, such funds can help pilot programs that will help school systems learn more about the work of an elementary school counselor. After a period of time, perhaps matching funds are needed to continue the number of counselors in a school system. Eventually the counselor's value will be proven and school boards will not consider an elementary school properly staffed until it has the services of a counselor.

Leadership and Training Programs. Elementary school counselor education programs in universities and colleges increased from 39 in 1960 to 234 in 1974. Most programs, however, continue to rely on a core of required courses for all counselors. The preparation of an elementary school counselor is frequently seen as a specialization, with a few courses being approved for graduation and recommended for certification. There are very few counselor educators who have had actual experience as a counselor at the elementary school level. Most school counselor educators have been high school counselors or administrators. In addition, early leadership in elementary school guidance, for the most part, was provided by colleges and universities that received money from federal grants and titles. Unfortunately, when federal funds were withdrawn or terminated many of these outstanding counselor education programs diminished. Leadership at the university level is lacking and without federal money it appears that counselor educators are not as responsive to child guidance needs as they could be. Counselor education programs typically follow the federal dollar. Subsequently, the demand for elementary school counselors continues to be high; the number of available graduates is low and, not enough counselor education programs are preparing these graduates to meet the challenges facing the counselor.

Certification. Certification of school counselors varies from state to state. Some states require minimum requirements for a person to be approved as a school counselor. Too often these people do not have the necessary preparation to help them become leaders to promote elementary school guidance. The entire issue of state certification, competency-based certification and licensure must be reviewed in terms of its implications for elementary school counselors.

There are still many states which do not have elementary guidance consultants. Leadership at this level is almost absent. Those states with special consultants in guidance at the different levels have been most effective in working with counselors, administrators, legislators and local school boards. Sadly enough, because of the lack of state level specialists it is very difficult, if not impossible, to assess the current status of elementary school guidance in the United States. There is no central source for collecting and coordinating guidance information.

Likewise, there is no agency, or person, at the federal level who has been identified as attempting to provide leadership in the area of elementary school guidance. Many of the efforts by the federal government are fragmented. Agencies work at cross purposes. There is a redundancy of programs that are designed to meet children's needs, without someone who is specifically charged with elementary school guidance responsibilities.

Perhaps the most encouraging thing about the current leadership is that most of it comes from the grassroots level and through professional organizations. Task forces, drive-in conferences and in-service training programs have been organized by guidance coordinators at the local level. Many times counselors themselves know more about their work and have joined with other counselors to learn techniques and approaches that are effective in helping children. Yet, these grassroots people are too often limited in their leadership efforts because of the demands that are already upon them in their schools. The high counselor-student ratio in most elementary schools, prevents a counselor from providing leadership on a broader scale.

In-Service Training. One of the early questions was: What comes first, jobs or professionally prepared personnel? Most people are not eager to enter a profession that is only beginning to develop. They prefer to seek opportunities where jobs are already in existence. Therefore, many elementary school counselor positions were created out of need, but before there was a sufficient number of well-prepared counselors. At the present time there are many school counselors who entered the profession inadequately prepared and who now need help in upgrading their skills. Regardless of what might be described in a written document, personnel is the key to a successful program. Many counselors now need help in learning more about their work and improving their counseling and consultation skills.

In-service training must be continuous because elementary school guidance is developing so rapidly. As new ideas enter the field it is important that counselors on the job hear about them and have an opportunity to practice them. More joint efforts on the part of state departments of education, universities, and local school systems are needed. Moreover, in-service programs are also needed for counselor educators who must develop programs at their colleges and universities. School administrators also need in-service training so that they might better support the school counselor and participate in developing guidance programs. State guidance consultants can use additional training in order that they might work better as part of a team to provide guidance services to all students in their state.

The Changing Role of the Counselor. Unfortunately, but realistically, the elementary school counselor will continue to be in the fix-it-up or repair business. The child who is troubled needs attention and, when most teachers and principals today think of what an elemenetary school counselor can add to their school program they often think of receiving help with problem children. They want a counselor who will answer the desperate question of "what am I going to do with this child?" "Can you do something for him?" Many of the problems that are presented to the counselor are not of a serious nature and they usually involve a breakdown in the teacher-learner relationship in the classroom. Many problems can be remedied most effectively in the classroom and often times before they become a crisis to both the child and the teacher.

It is possible that the counselor's role will change in the future. At present counselors give high priority to helping teachers learn more about children and to improve the school's learning climate. The counselor-consultant role is particularly valued in these times. In addition, the counselor may need to become a supervisor of support personnel as well as a coordinator. For example, as a supervisor of parent volunteers the counselor may be able to provide more service to more children. As a supervisor of a peer facilitator program, the counselor can also reach and help more students.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. There should be a developmental school counselor in every elementary school.
2. The federal government should take a more active role in assisting state and local educational agencies to develop guidance programs for all elementary schools.

3. Professional leaders should work together to provide more in-service training to state and local guidance personnel.
4. The federal government, professional organizations, state departments of education, and colleges and universities should work together in teaming efforts that are more systematic and accountable.
5. The U.S. Office of Education should have at least one person in a guidance and counseling section who has the responsibilities of coordinating governmental programs and working with leaders in elementary school guidance and counseling.
6. Counselor education departments should re-examine their programs in elementary school guidance and move to a competency-based curriculum.
7. State certification for elementary school counselors should be re-evaluated. New plans need to be developed in order that competencies are given emphasis. Required experience needs to be reassessed.
8. State legislators should be encouraged in their efforts to provide state funds for guidance and enact legislation that will assure student services for all students.

It has only been within the last decade that we have seen the development of systematic guidance programs, staffed by certified professional counselors in the elementary schools. For the first time since the guidance movement began many years ago it is possible for a child to have access to a comprehensive program of guidance services at every level of education. This program must be comprehensive and developmental in nature. It must be coordinated in such a way that children learn more efficiently and effectively.

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Developmental Guidance and Counseling In Junior High/Middle Schools

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"What is essential is invisible to the eye." (from The Little Prince by Antoine de Saint Exupery)

HEIGHTENING CONSCIOUSNESS AS GOAL FOR COUNSELING

Counseling practices in junior high/middle school ought to heighten consciousness in every student. With the heightening of consciousness, individuals become more aware of the possibilities in their lives. Possibility awareness helps individuals understand that they can get in control and guide their lives rather than existing only to "cope." Sensing that control of one's life is possible, the individual then has the option of differentiating when to become conscious and MAKE his or her life happen rather than to remain automatic just LETTING life drift along.

Skeptics frequently suggest that perhaps many people would not want to be fully conscious. It is true that one would not want to be totally conscious as that is neither practical nor necessary. But it is better to have the option of being selectively conscious rather than to remain ignorant of such selective consciousness.

Why should a heightened sense of consciousness be developed in students? There are several reasons. First, since most people tend to react rather than consciously select, they lack data on what it feels like to be conscious and selective. This lack of data tends to suppress their selecting the conscious state. One phrase that describes people living without many instances of consciousness is reflected in the statement "in a rut." Second, becoming more conscious of one's behavior, language, choices, and failures tends to cause individuals to more carefully examine their lives and to grow interpersonally. Third, opting for more instances of conscious behavior may reduce "in a rut" feelings and introduce "in control of " feelings. And finally, to exist with some degree of sanity in this highly technological, fast moving, over-stimulated society, more instances of consciousness are going to have to be present in individual life patterns. These instances of consciousness partially need to be used to build "stability zones," (Toffler, 1970) so that individuals can experience good mental health as they live in the society.

How can the practice of counseling in junior high/middle school facilitate the development of a heightened sense of consciousness in students? This paper will discuss how the practice of counseling in junior high/middle school can facilitate the development of a heightened sense of consciousness in students by: 1) examining meanings of the word "counseling"; 2) indicating how counseling is currently practiced in middle/junior high school; 3) suggesting how it ought to be practiced with developmental education; 4) presenting a developmental education curriculum in which a student can learn to get in control of and guide his or her personal development; 5) discussing barriers of a developmental education prógram; 6) suggesting student outcomes; 7) describing the role change necessary for counselors to be involved in developmental education; and 8) describing the educational restructuring needed in our society and schools if counselors are to implement such a system of developmental education.

WHAT DOES COUNSELING MEAN?

There are many definitions of counseling proferred by various people, but this paper will use only Webster's, Tyler's, and Tiedeman's definitions of counseling.

Webster, (1971) defines counseling as "the use of psychological methods in testing the interests of and giving professional guidance to individuals." (p. 190) In Webster's (1976) unabridged dictionary, the word "counsel" when used as a noun is defined as "consultation; mutual inter-change of opinions, ideas, etc., discussion and deliberation." (p. 415) However, "counsel" used as a transitive verb means "to give advice to; to advise; to exhort, warn, admonish. To advise or recommend." And "counsel" used as an intransitive verb means "to deliberate; to give or to take advice." (p. 415 unabridged)

Tyler (1953) suggests that counseling is a "helping process the aim of which is not to change the person but to enable him or her to utilize resources he or she has for coping with life." (p. 12) In other words, counseling is a process used by an individual to help another with a particular problem or problems. Helping another implies that the counselor uses techniques known at first only to the counselor; otherwise students could help themselves in what they presume the counselor can help them know, do, and be. Therefore the chances of the client initially being able to know what techniques or processes the counselor will use are presumed to be so remote as to be inconsequential. As a consequence, if the individual is not taught during counseling how he or she was helped to solve the particular problem considered in counseling, the individual is not likely to be able to use the same or similar techniques or processes on a similar problem in the future. Thus, in the Tyler system of counseling, which is the ordinary system of counseling, not knowing how to counsel one's self in the beginning and not being taught to counsel one's self during counseling keeps an individual dependent on others for help and places and leaves control of his or her development with someone else forever unless the individual takes control spontaneously.

Tiedeman and I believe that, concommitant with the Tyler goal of counseling, a simultaneous major goal of counseling should be to educate the person receiving help to identify and use the process he or she is experiencing and to learn how knowing that process can be useful with similar future problems. This addition to the counseling goal leaves and places control of development in the individual, not the counselor.

Tiedeman's and my definition of a goal for counseling, along with the Webster definition of "mutual interchange of opinions, ideas," will be used in this paper. However, it is important to understand that regardless of whose definition is used, counseling is only one of many tools that can be used to help another control or guide his or her development. Counseling is just one function of a counselor, not all that a counselor ought to do.

COUNSELING IN JUNIOR HIGH/MIDDLE SCHOOL

Cognitive and psychological growth are presently not explicitly sought simultaneously in either counseling or teaching in the American public school system. American schools do place major emphasis on cognitive growth (Kemp, 1971) devoting consideragle time to academic subjects that supposedly stimulate the intellect and hopefully "prepare students for life." But the task of also stimulating the intellect in order to further psychological growth is usually relegated to guidance and counseling alone, which, because they are often only peripheral and adjustive services, reach few individuals in significant ways. As a result counselors do their major work in facilitating psychological growth largely when students have been disruptive in the classroom, do not attend school, or generally have alleged "bad attitudes." Guidance and counseling therefore become means to "adjust students to the current system" which is different from stimulating psychological growth; if anything, it may impede it.

As noted, historically counseling in the middle/junior high school has not been focused on helping students guide and direct their own development; it has been more of a corrective measure with some little counseling being directed towards helping students think about a future earning activity. Basically, several types of counseling are obvious at the junior high school level: 1) counseling students who disrupt classes; 2) counseling students who continually act out when not in class; 3) counseling students who are skipping class or not doing their work; and 4) counseling students about abilities, interests, etc., in regard to a future earning activity. It is interesting to note that the latter type of counseling is consistent with the Webster definition previously mentioned; and the other three types of counseling are more consistent with Tyler's definition of counseling which emphasizes "coping." Middle-School counselors have rested content to help students bear life, not to attack it.

The "coping" counseling done by counselors usually takes place in the counselor's office. The student called in is often concerned about "being in trouble," which is one indication that students don't often see counseling in a positive way. Because most counseling is done by counselors in their office, it is usually seen as a peripheral service, not as an integral part of the educational process. Also, because it is done on an aperiodic referral basis, it usually contains little continuous process with it, often being only a one or two-time contact during a year. And since young people, as well as adults alike, need process and continuity to learn and to develop, this one or two-time contact, although possibly ordinarily meaningful, is generally not very impactful.

Consider what happens in subjects such as English, mathematics, social studies, and science for instance. Since many students would probably not choose these subjects if they were not required for graduation, only slight annual gains could be expected in the untutored many. This is what presently happens in guidance and counseling. Since not many students choose counseling, only a few actually get to experience the service. And most counseling these few do get usually falls into the above four categories. All of this is not specifically aimed at helping the student to get in control of and guide his or her development. None of the latter is required. Learning the three-R's remains king; psychological development remains pauper.

The practice of counseling ought to be a means to accomplish developmental education, not remain an end in itself In such a structure, counseling should be used as a supplementary technique to help students understand their own involvement in the developmental education program whether in the classroom or on a one-to-one basis.

Counseling done in conjunction with an in-classroom developmental education program is more likely to be ego strengthening in nature. This is true for several reasons. First when the counselor works in the classroom with the teacher he or she is working with students who are learning about the stages of personal development, decision-making or values development. Problems that arise from a student's response to the personal development program are different from those of students who are singled out because they are disturbing class or because they are not doing their work. In the former instance, students are engaging themselves in personal development and may not understand it. In the latter instance the students may not want to be in class because they have decided it is a waste of time. So motivation of these two groups of students may be considerably different. Having difficulty because you don't understand not because you don't want to know is different.

Second, students who are exposed to developmental education gain in personal development as measured by the Loevinger and Wessler (1971, 1977) ego development scale. (Miller-Tiedeman, 1977; Erickson, 1976; Sprinthall, 1976) A gain in personal development may be a factor in reducing the number of times a student gets into trouble in school.

Third, when counseling is done in a personal development classroom setting, more students are reached and often students who would be potential behavioral problems can be identified before they are sent to the counselor in a crisis situation.

Finally, students who receive counseling that comes from participation in an in-class personal development program have a better chance to learn how to control and guide their personal developments. But how does a student learn to control and guide his or her personal development?

Four conditions are necessary to learn to guide and control development. First, one needs to know that there is a higher stage of development possible. Second, one needs to know what those stages are, and the general stage at which he or she is presently functioning. Third, one must want to progress to this higher stage of development. And finally, one should have support and discussion as he or she spirals up the scale of personal development. In order for these conditions to have personal effect, they must be organized into a structure such as that considered next.

THE STRUCTURE OF LEARNING TO GUIDE AND CONTROL DEVELOPMENT

Hierarchical Restructuring

As noted above, before determining who he or she wants to be, the student must know the options. Once the options are known, the student must decide which direction to move. This may require the student to change the way he or she thinks. This restructuring of the individual thinking personality takes sudden forms but manifests discernable states. For instance, learning to ride a bicycle is a sudden restructuring of skills. Platt (1970) suggests that such restructuring has the following discernable states:

1. "The jumps are always preceded and accompanied by 'cognitive dissonance,'" (p. 10) which may be evident in the student's complaining, resisting, feeling uncomfortable with the activity. A good example of this happened in one of the classes when the author's personal development classroom program first began. Everyone was asked to put his/her chair in a circle. This caused some dissonance as most students were accustomed to looking at another student's back, not facing the group in a circle. Such students were invited to compare their old ways of thinking with the new ones presented in the program, thereby causing them to confront the differences. Platt suggests that "...in the restructuring of personality, cognitive dissonance is supposed to be the precondition for any kind of personal learning." (p. 10, underlining added). Furthermore, when a student challenges something being presented, that may be a more positive sign than if he or she sits passively and listens. The student who challenges or resists may learn more than the passive ones. "...Strong cognitive dissonance, personal or social, has many side effects (system instabilities) such as anxiety, anger, over assertion or aggression (pro- or anti-status-quo) or counter-responses such as withdrawal, nausea..." (p. 11)

2. "A second feature of self generated hierarchical jumps is the overall character of the dissonance and of the later transformation." (p. 12) When dissonance occurs it occurs from multiple, not singular causes.

3. "A third striking feature of hierarchical jumps is the suddenness of the restructuring..." (p. 12) even though working out this restructuring may take years.

4. "A fourth characteristic which Paul Bohannon and others stress... is simplification. In scientific advances the direction of advance is always toward simpler and more general explanations." (p. 15)

The Proposed Curriculum Model

Platt's Theory of Hierarchical Restructuring for self development provides a base for the suggested curriculum model of developmental education consisting of three conceptual units: 1) Ego Development (Loevinger and Wessler, 1971; Loevinger, 1976); 2) Decision-Making Development (Miller and Tiedeman, 1972; Tiedeman and Miller-Tiedeman, 1977; and Miller-Tiedeman and Niemi, 1977); and 3) Values Development (Graves, 1974). These three pivotal program units are selected because each is developmental and all are closely parallel in developmental stages. It is hypothesized that gains in ego development may affect hierarchical rearrangement of values priorities through gains in decision-making development. If so, the other two gains in turn may influence personal development. These three models thus have the potential of harmonizing with each other as one gains consciousness of the effects of each. Gaining that consciousness should eventually bring about an understanding in the students of their own evolutionary natures and of the nature of evolution in their universe. This allows a "static" frame of mind to be replaced by a "moving" one and helps students swing back and forth between ego development and values development using their choices as swing points. Evolutionary understanding proves necessary for quality living in the technological society in which we now live. (Toffler, 1970)

Although the desired overall hierarchical restructuring is the cyclic experience of personal development giving rise through decision making to the selection of enlarged life purposes and a return to greater personal development, the points defining the cycle most still be presented one by one before the circularly placed points can be drawn in and used as a cycle. Each point of the ultimate cycle will therefore be described before their desired integration is considered.

Conceptual Unit No. 1 — Loevinger and Wessler's Model of Ego Development. The Loevinger and Wessler (1971) Model of Ego Development consists of a hierarchy of stages beginning with autistic and ending at integrated. The hierarchy in its entirety describes advancing stages of personality development. These stages are marked by a moving away from selfish concerns and conforming tendencies through the more self critical condition involved in resolving concerns for self with others into an "integrated" stage which is similar in quality to Maslow's self actualized person, one whose behavior is characterized by self sufficiency, meaningfulness, playfulness, richness, simplicity, order, justice, completion, necessity, perfection, individuality, aliveness, beauty, goodness and truth. (Maslow, 1954)

Following is a brief description of the specific Loevinger and Wessler (1971) stages of ego development used in these explorations:

Presocial Stage (Infant)

Symbiotic Stage (Intimate)

1. Impulsive Stage
   Acting quickly without much thought. Individuals operating at this stage tend to class people as good or bad.
   "Good and bad at times are confused with nice-to-me versus mean-to-me." (p. 16)
   Present oriented.

2. Self Protective Stage
   Don't get caught is major theme.
   Blame what happens to you on other people.
   "Self criticism is not characteristic" (p. 17) at this stage.

3. Conformist Stage
   Uncritically accepts a group identity and obeys the rules just because they are the group-accepted rules.

3/4. Self-Aware Level
Individuals at this stage see alternatives. Individuals become aware of moving out of Conformist Stage in "...not always living up to idealized portrait set by social norms." (p. 19)

4. Conscientious Stage
Individuals at this stage think in "...terms of polarities, but more complex ones: trivial versus important; love versus lust; dependent versus independent." (p. 21) There is an increased ability to see matters from other people's view.

4/5. Individualistic Level
A heightened sense of individuality is experienced at this level. To move beyond the conscientious stage one must "become more tolerant of self and others." (p. 22)

5. Autonomous Stage
In addition to respect for individuality there is a "coping with conflicting inner needs, toleration." (p. 24)

6. Integrated
This level is represented by the conditions of Maslow's self actualized person as described above.

The above stages are not discrete; they overlap and differ depending upon situation and circumstances. For instance, one may use a Stage 2 response in a particular situation and a Stage 4 for another. But there tends to be a "core functioning" for each individual. Loevinger and Wessler (1971) "assume as do Sullivan, Grand and Grant (1957) that each person has some level of core functioning," (p. 15) a level where most of the responses on the Sentence Completion Form by which Loevinger and Wessler measure ego development are grouped. The taking or non-taking of personal responsibility can be noted in the way one finishes the sentences which are translated into an ego development level.

As one moves up the scale of ego development, one tends to become more self critical and more concerned about self in the broader context of others and events. It becomes easier to read the self in situation while one is living the moment as one considers self criticism a possibility. On the other hand, as one advances to the conscientious stage feedback from others tends to be more acceptable. This feedback is considered but one does not live solely according to the dictates of others and "they".

The Loevinger and Wessler (1971) Model of Ego Development provides a developmental scale that gives students a standard against which to measure their progress through the various stages. This is done by a hand-scored Sentence Completion Form of 37 questions. However, the scale can be reduced to 20 questions without markedly marring its validity for the program's use. The Sentence Completion Form provides a method by which a student's stage in ego development can be inferred by both teacher and student.

It is important to note that the original ego development scale was developed from data collected on only women. However, Loevinger and

Wessler (1971) in a study of boys and girls age 9 to 18, suggest that "a chi square test shows no significant differences of the total protocol rating (TPR) at the various age groups between boys and girls." (p. 51) The writer has also used this scale with over 1,000 boys and girls without noting any significant restraints on boys' development resulting from the scale's construction on only girls' data.

Conceptual Unit No. 2 — Graves Values Developmental Model. The taking or not taking of personal responsibility as revealed by its expression in language can also be observed in one's value system, the mirror for one's priorities. These priorities can be organized according to the Graves (1974) Values Development Model which suggests the following seven stages through which the individual progresses in values maturation.

Reactive Values

No awareness of self as a separate and distinct being. Pleasure is important. A person at this level does not judge or believe. He or she just reacts to his/her environment in ways that are most beneficial to him/her.

Traditionalistic Values

A person at this level is concerned with safety through tradition. Things are valued because the elders and ancestors seem to know what is best for people and what is not good. The theme for existence at this level is "one shall live according to the ways of one's elders." (p. 82)

Manipulative or Exploitive Values

A person at this level begins to feel separate and distinct and no longer feels a need to do things a certain way because they have always been done that way. The need to foster one's individual survival becomes dominant at this level. Individuals at this level begin to manipulate things intentionally rather than passively accepting things.

Sacrificial Values

A person at this level believes that "one should sacrifice earthly desires now in order to come to everlasting peace later. Earthly existence is only the means to salvation — sacrifice of desire in the here and now. Typical means values are denial, deference, piety, modesty, self-sacrifice, and harsh self discipline. Rules are black and white and only the authority that he or she accepts (for instance the church or political party) is proper in its definition of virtue and sin." (p. 83)

Materialistic Values

A person at this level is interested in "...accomplishing, getting, having, and possessing. He or she seeks control over the physical universe so as to provide for his/her material wants. He/she values gamesmanship, competition, the entrepreneurial attitude, efficiency, work simplification, the calculated risk." (p. 83)

Personalistic Values

A person at this level "...prizes interpersonal relationships, working with people rather than against them, persuasion rather than force, softness rather than cold rationality, sensitivity rather than objectivity, taste rather than wealth, personality more than things. Values at this level are getting along with more than getting ahead." (p. 84) A spiritual attitude is important at this level.

Survival for all men or Existential Values

A person at this level is concerned with giving to society rather than being a parasite leeching upon the world. He or she is concerned with what he or she considers to be the most serious problem to date, "how the human species can survive." (p. 84) At this level, a new thema for existence is "...express self so that all others, all beings can continue to exist." (p. 84) "Interests at this level arise not from selfish interests but from the recognition of the magnificence of existence and a desire to see that it shall continue to be." (p. 84)

Like the stages in the Ego Development Model, the levels in the Values Development Model are not discrete but overlap, depending on situation and circumstances. For instance, a learner may be "reacting" on one situation and more "materialistic" in another. Although there is probably a "core functioning" level in values development, to the writers' knowledge, there is no formal way of measuring it. Nevertheless, it is hypothesized that, as a learner moves up the values development scale (as the learner can on the ego development scale), the higher the level, the more the learner is concerned with interpersonal relationships and existential problems rather than materialistic or traditional kinds of concerns. And the ultimate in values development is to "express self so that all others, all beings can continue to exist." (Grave, 1974, p. 84)

The language of the Loevinger and Wessler (1971) Mode of Ego Development and the Graves (1974) Values Development Model suggests both how learners at various steps in each model perceive the world and describe it to themselves and how their actions are often based on their perceptions of what is happening. If the student's core functioning is at the Self Protective stage, the way the student speaks of an event will contain language indicative of that stage of functioning. For example, when a teacher continues to ask a student for his/her late work, the student's state of functioning will determine how he or she perceives that situation and responds to it. A student who perceives him/herself as "being picked on" (Loevinger's Self Protective level) will come through differently to a teacher than one who thinks, "If I turn my papers in on time, I will not be spoken to in this way." (Loevinger's Conscientious level)

The same situation can be analyzed from the values development perspective. For example, a student at the "Reactive Level" may perceive him/herself as being "picked on," whereas a student at the "personalistic level" may perceive the problem as one of taking the responsibility to get the paper in on time because it is a matter of "getting along." On the other hand, the student functioning at the "materialistic" level may get the paper in on time for the reason of being competitive.

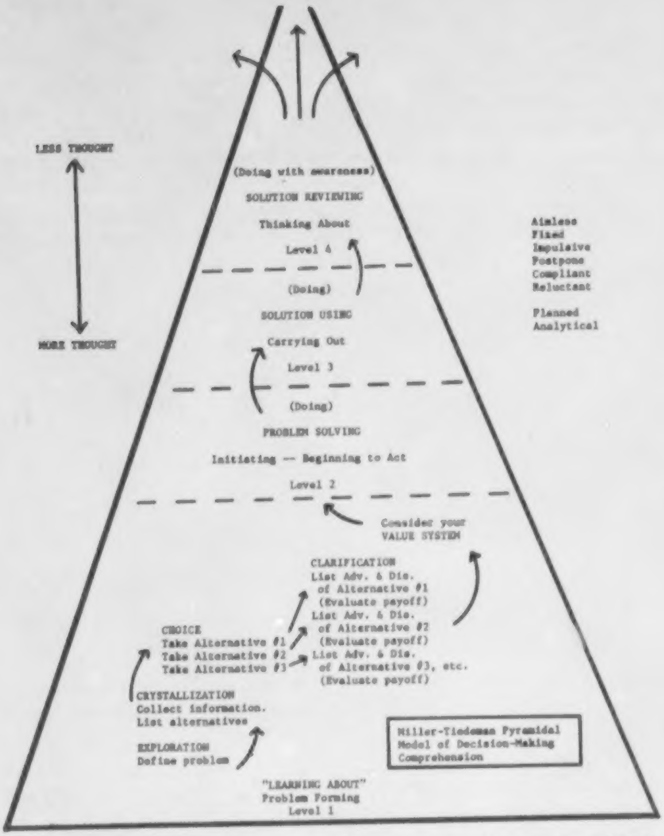
The Loevinger and Wessler (1971) Model of Ego Development is a structure for assessing psychological growth emphasizing the self as object of study. The Graves (1974) Values Development Model is a structure for appraising general priorities in one's value system. It is hypothesized that increasing one's level of ego development ought to change the priorities in one's value structure. Conversely a change in one's value priorities to a higher level could positively affect one's current level of ego development. Under this hypothesis, the following correspondence of stages is expected to emerge:

The following Loevinger & Wessler Stage of Ego Development	Has Some Formal Correspondence with	The following Graves Levels of Values Development
Presocial		--
Symbiotic		--
Impulsive		Reactive
Self Protective		--
Conformist		Traditionalistic
Self Aware		Manipulative or Exploitive
Conscientious		Religious or Sacrificial
Individualistic		Materialistic
Autonomous		Personalistic
Integrated		Existential or "Survival for all men"

Conceptual Unit No. 3 — Decision-Making Development

The main skill one needs to advance up the steps of ego development and values development is decision making. The Miller-Tiedeman Model of decision making offers students a structure to advance simultaneously in ego development and values development by making their choices an object of direct study. The Miller-Tiedeman Model of Decision Making which is represented in Figure 1 was designed from the work of Tiedeman (1961), Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963), Dinklage (1968), and Wilson (1971). In 1968 Dinklage studied the decision making strategies students used in making decisions. She found the following strategies to be most prevalent: Impulsive, Fatalistic, Compliant, Delaying, Agonizing, Planning, Intuitive, Paralytic. These strategies were used to construct the Miller-Tiedeman Model and are generally influential in determining what part of the decision-making process the student uses in his/her life designing. The strategies provide access to one of their learning levels (Wilson, 1971), (1) learning about, (2) doing, and (3) doing with awareness, which, in the Miller-Tiedeman model, are extended to four learning and activity levels as follows:

> Level 1, learning about, requires more thought as it includes the Tiedeman decision-making stages of exploration, crystallization, choice, and clarification. Also this level includes thinking about what may influence and/or determine the final decision. Level 2, beginning to act, is that part of the process where action starts on the final decision.



This level can be directly entered by using a less thoughtful decision strategy as well as by a more thoughtful one which might include going through all the Tiedeman stages at level 2. At level 3, the individual carries out what she or he has begun in level 2 and level 4 is a "review level" where the individual considers possible redefinition and potential recycling.

The broken lines in Figure 1 suggest that these four levels are not discrete and the top is open to illustrate the on-going potential cyclic nature of decision making.

The decision-making strategies provide hypothetical access to the decision-making levels. In considering choices, the important factor in action is the strategy of decision making which figures in the students' core functioning of language at the moment. Miller-Tiedeman (1974) adapted the above described work of Dinklage (1968) to create decision-making strategies which she and Niemi (Miller-Tiedeman and Niemi, 1977) recently revised and arranged in the hierarchy recorded below from the "less thoughtful" to the "more thoughtful," or from the less cognitive to the more cognitive.

Undoubtedly, some students use the following eight deciding strategies or at least some of them, unconsciously. But setting them out explicitly helps students use them consciously and judiciously, as a way to exercise a measure of control over their decisions and consequently, over their lives. The fact of decision making therefore ought to become less random and more thoughtful. If it is naive to presume that the transmitting of information to people will change their behavior, we can only hope that familiarity with the decision-making strategies will at least stimulate them to ponder their responses in situations which demand the making of decisions. The revised eight deciding strategies are as follows:

Less thought	1. Aimless	"I don't care or I don't want to be bothered."
	2. Fixed	"What will be will be."
	3. Impulsive - A	"Act now; think later or not at all."
	Impulsive - B	"Act now; based on prior information."
	4. Postpone	"I'll think about that later."
	5. Compliant	"If it's ok with you, it's ok with me."
	6. Reluctant	"I know I should but I can't get with it."
	7. Planned	"I set goals, I plan how to reach them, and I carry out my plans."
More thought	8. Analytical	"I carefully analyze a situation, including the consequences of what I intend to do or say."

It is recognized that no individual consistently uses the same strategy (e.g., the Planned) when confronting every situation that demands a decision. Sometimes a person will decide only after much thought, and sometimes decide impulsively, depending upon the nature of the decision and the influences at work. These influences consist of feelings and emotions, needs, and constraints of time, money, human relationships, value systems, etc. Nevertheless, it is obvious that some individuals do develop habitual responses to situations that call for decisions to be made; that is, one or two strategies are usually employed while the remaining strategies are ignored. For this reason, decision-making strategies may reflect habit or basic personality types.

Conceptual Unit No. 4 — Interaction of Ego and Values Development during Decision Making.

The Model. First, students should assess the stage on which their core language functions with regard to ego development, values development and decision making strategies. In doing so, they have a choice. They can decide to unite their ego development and values through further comprehension of their decision making, or they can decide not to. If students are ready, then they can be helped to forge a union of the three languages (ego development, values development, and decision making).

The language of ego development, values development and the decision making strategies was first presented discretely in the preceding three sub-sections in order to familiarize the reader with each. Below they are united.

Loevinger Stages in Ego Development	Miller-Tiedeman & Niemi Decision-Making Strategies	Graves' Values Levels
Integrated	--	Survival for all men or Existential
Autonomous	Analytical	Personalistic
Individualistic	--	Materialistic
Conscientious	Planned	Religious or Sacrificial
Self-Aware	Reluctant	Manipulative or Exploitive
Conformist	Compliant	Traditionalistic
Self Protective	Postpone	--
Impulsive	Impulsive	Reactive
--	Fixed	--
--	Aimless	--

The above model represents only tentative relationships, not direct one-to-one parallels. If a learner uses the more thoughtful decision making strategies (Planned and Analytical) to guide him/her in selecting experiences that are potentially growth promoting, these experiences should both advance the student in ego development and rearrange priorities in his/her value structure. (The author does not define "growth promoting" as meaning experiences that are always pleasant. To the contrary, painful experiences tend to teach us most.) However, if the student relies only on less thoughtful decision-making strategies (Aimless, Postpone, Fixed, Impulsive, Reluctant, etc.) which infer non-selection of experience and "drifting" through life, then advancement up the ego development and values development scales is not as likely and has a simultaneous effect on one's decision making in that these less thoughful strategies probably continue to be the ones relied upon. This relationship of ego development, values development and decision making is therefore offered because the author believes the student needs both to advance his/her capacity to recognize core language functioning in all areas — ego, values and decision making — and to use them unitedly to advance up the scale of ego and values development through comprehension of decision-making which in turn ought to result in more thoughtful speaking and acting.

The Decision-Control Center. In the above model, the decision-making strategies were placed in the middle of the ego stages and values levels, because it is believed that awareness of the processes of choice and decision (Tiedeman and Miller-Tiedeman, 1976) brings developmental advance in ego and values more so than does any reverse ordering of the three. For instance, note above that students ought to become more planned and analytical in their thought-filled speech as they step up on each of the two scales and that their decision making should become more thoughtful, planned and possibly analytical. As students move up the decision-making scale in that way, teachers/counselors need to help them perfect their causal language concerning the effects of the self in situation on the

Loevinger and Wessler scale of ego development. In Graves' scale of values development on the other hand, a student's upward movement in decision strategies would be accompanied by enlarging ability to live more contingently and more committedly as well which suggests that life priorities would change. In the Graves schema, students first become more aware of holding their values because they fear what society thinks of them rather than because they prefer them (the traditionalistic level). This awareness in turn causes them to become more committed to their own values and they therefore move up the values scale (Personalistic level). By these same tokens, as students differentiate choices for themselves they tend to become more conscious of themselves in their own deciding and to use more analytical and planned decision making strategies. As students gain further consciousness of their own deciding, they then relate their decisions to their values in order to create a preference situation for themselves and rearrange their values priorities as a result. Thus the more conscious students become of themselves in their decisions, the more conscious they become of the effects their decisions have on their ego development which in turn affects their priorities (values) and these two turn back on their decision making to influence their decision making strategy choice. Thus they spiral up to maturity. As students grow to recognize this cyclical effect which they can turn into a spiral, they should become more present in their decision-making during choices and better understand its effect on their ego development and values development. In developing all three processes simultaneously learners therefore gain in personal development.

IMPLEMENTING DEVELOPMENTAL EDUCATION NECESSITATES CHANGE IN COUNSELOR ROLE

The typical middle/junior high school counselor has traditionally been one who usually sits in his or her office, talks with students about behavioral problems, and sees those students whom the teacher refers as "disturbance problems, a few students who refer themselves because of problems with their peers and a few more who want help deciding about their future. The counselor may also be involved with class scheduling for students. And finally, the work of mediating disagreements among peers and races often tends to be a major activity.

However, for counselors to do developmental education they must work closely with the classroom teacher to bring into a time-extended structure those activities that cause students to learn skills facilitating personal control and assumption of life guidance. Typically, if we want students to learn something, we put it in a time-extended framework and teach and guide in what we want the student to learn and how we want him/her to go about it.

There is very little evidence to the writer's knowledge which indicates that psychological growth happens as a result of growing older. To be sure, nature gives individuals a certain amount of development; the remainder has to be gained through work. Since one has to expend energy and effort to reach higher levels of development, we find "so many who are old, and so few mature." (Tiedeman, 1975) A similar problem would exist for academics if such a half-hearted approach were taken to the learning of math, English, science, and social studies. If one looks at public education, one finds that those things that are considered important are given time, process and sequence in the curriculum.

Second, the counselor must become a guidance manager, and help classroom teachers plan and implement developmental education, since obviously there will never be a sufficient number of counselors to carry out developmental education. This means that the counselor has to learn how to "give counseling" away to the teachers so they in turn can "give it away" to the students.

Third, the counselor must change from an "availability" to an "appointment" model. This does not mean that emergency situations cannot be handled, but it does mean that students in need of personal development do not just drop in on the counselor. This "appointment" model requires the setting of priorities, with classroom work and guidance management having first priority. Some might ask the question, "Well, aren't students the reason for a counselor to be in the school?" And the answer to that is "Yes." But the counselor is not in the school for the few students who usually take up a lot of the counselor's time; the counselor is in the school to serve all students. The appointment model would be one that would allow more students to receive growth counseling through participation in a classroom activity. This would reach those "average" students who are not disturbing, who come and go in the school and are not usually noticed much. They are also seldom selected as a group to receive Federal money for projects.

The appointment model is also good in that it prepares students for what they will meet in the world. Very seldom can a student just "drop in" and see a doctor, dentist, or a psychologist; they will need to make appointments for such visits.

BARRIERS TO A PERSONAL GROWTH PROGRAM

Many barriers prevent infusion of personal development into America's middle schools.

The first barrier is that most students do not experience personal development programs along with their academic class work. So, "psychological growth" tends to be seen as "off limits," "not any of the school's business," "a private matter," etc. Students in middle schools therefore fail to realize that education includes both psychological and intellectual growth. (Dewey, 1964) When students go to work they take the whole person (personality skills as well as academic competencies). In addition, what most students think is so private is often very public. We all communicate more about ourselves than we realize. Therefore, contrary to popular opinion, the more we know about ourselves, not the less we know about ourselves, the more control we have over what we communicate.

Second, since students have not worked much on their personal developments, the idea of seeking a higher level of personal development is often seen as "a waste of time" because the more important is supposed to be in the academic subjects. A common statement is, "my mother (or dad) did not do any of this and she (or he) is ok." It seldom occurs to the student that ok is just that, ok, not good. Nor does it ordinarily occur to students that gaining more development may improve his/her decision making to the point of one day saving his/her life in view of the fact that the suicide rate for young people age 15 to 24 has increased 79 percent from 1965 to 1974. This point is even more crucial to males than to females because the suicide rate for males increased 85 percent while the rate for females increased 60 percent in this period.

Finally, if the person who is teaching developmental education does not himself or herself believe in it or practice it, then it may have little effect with the students. Most students model our behavior rather than our words.

STUDENT OUTCOMES

In a developmental education program, students can be expected to exhibit the following:

1. They will gain better ways of handling problems in their lives. For example, if a student makes a low grade on a test and wants to talk with the teacher about it, the response of the teacher will depend on how well the student presents his/her side of the problem. How the student does this will depend on his/her level of maturity and his/her ability to handle the decision-making process. The more mature the student becomes, the more he/she will understand how he/she acts and reacts in different situations, and how the other person in the situation may feel. This maturity will give the student more skill in handling difficult situations so that they work out positively for the student.
2. They will become more aware of their language and how it hinders and/or helps them in their social and academic progress. Have them ask themselves the question, "How often do I speak without thinking just so I'll be heard?"
3. They will learn the stages of personal development which will help them understand themselves and others better.
4. They will learn how their own personal development is reflected in the decision-making strategies they choose to use.
5. They will learn how using nine decision-making strategies with understanding can rearrange their values and cause them to set priorities which they will periodically review and revise as their experiences change.
6. They will get a chance to practice the decision-making process by solving relevant problems.
7. They will be expected to become more selective and thoughtful about those decisions that have a long-term effect on their lives, i.e., college, future, work, travel, etc.
8. They will become persons who choose to experience some difficult and perhaps unpleasant tasks because doing so will strengthen them in the long-term much more than if they take the easy, immediately pleasurable route. For example, they will not check with friends to find the "easy class or teacher," but choose the class that will help them, even though it may be hard.
9. They will improve in any of the following ideas that they give time and effort to:

A. Becoming more conscious of themselves in order to cooperate with their momentary and daily evolutions (changes). (Meet each minute in life as it comes and if necessary treat situations as problems.)

B. Living more frequently in the PRESENT as opposed to the past or future. (Identify daydreaming as a method of escaping from what is happening at the moment. Be aware of what is happening around you. Make each new moment in your life exciting and worth living instead of reliving old moments only.)

C. Becoming more planful and acting on their plans.

D. Waking up to MAKING their lives happen rather than SLEEPING and letting life drift by. (Actively choose what you will do, rather than just accepting what comes along.)

E. Believing in themselves in order to tolerate anxiety when they become uncertain. (Have confidence in themselves to carry through even though some may not think they can.)

F. Being sensitive to others as they gain personal power — not power over but power with and among other people.

G. Recognizing and discarding old ways of thinking by watching how their thinking shows in their behavior.

H. Being honest with themselves.

I. Following through various commitments and assignments without excuses.

NEEDED EDUCATIONAL RESTRUCTURING IN OUR SOCIETY AND ITS SCHOOLS

In 1776, thirteen North American colonies embarked upon a daring social experiment which later found manifestation in the Constitution of the United States of America. The fundamental principle on which the colonists, their descendents, and our immigrants built this daring society was the principle that each person is capable of decision and choice in political and other matters.

This paper has assumed consciousness to be prerequisite to decision and choice in political and other personal matters. The paper has also pointed out that humankind is not endowed with consciousness; humankind has had to evolve consciousness in the breakdown of its bicameral mind (Jaynes, 1976) The Jaynes argument contains convincing evidence that humankind has achieved the capacity for consciousness evolutionarily through the 12 millenia or so in which the bicameral mind has broken down in the developments of human societies. However, the Jaynes argument also convincingly indicates that the capacity for consciousness must be developed in each of us during our lives, not assumed by humankind to be fully developed and capacitated upon birth.

If the Jaynes hypothesis is true as now seems to be the case, our forefathers built a system of schools based upon an inaccurate assumption about humankind. Our forefathers' assumption about humankind is that humankind only need be informed in order to decide and choose wisely. However, Jaynes shows that humankind must also develop their consciousness more fully during each person's life if each person is to decide and choose not just informedly but confidently and decisively as well. Reading, writing, and arithmetic are therefore no longer a fully developing curriculum for every citizen in the United States of America. The fully developing curriculum must also cultivate personal consciousness of decision making and choice as well. Only a curriculum of reading, writing, arithmetic, and personal development will educate U.S. citizens to the level of citizenship necessary for effective operation of society and its government and economy. A Three-R's or basic education curriculum will school our citizens beyond a doubt. However, it takes a Three-R's plus a One-D (Development) curriculum to educate our citizens beyond a doubt.

Such concepts provide solid foundation for what we need in the way of a new educational policy and structure for guidance and counseling in education. For instance, as argued above, we must introduce personal development into the curriculum of American schools on a required basis if we are to educate, not just to school our citizens. But, if American schools organize themselves so that personal development is required, not just elected by those who know they need it or not just accidentally achieved in those referred to counselors because their behavior creates problems for others, then counselors have attitudes to change and work to do.

Probably the most fundamental attitude changes which counselors need are changes of their own attitudes. My experience has not turned up many counselors in middle or other schools who are convinced that the personal development goals for which they stand should be mandated in the school organization, not just left to infiltrate schools as best they may.

Probably the second most fundamental attitude changes which counselors need are those of their students. An inordinate number of students presently dare schools to educate them; they don't assume collaborative responsibility with schools for their own educations. The creation of a belief that each student can guide his/her own life constitutes a challenge which students need to accept and practice.

A third kind of attitude changes which counselors need are changes in the attitudes of parents with whom they work. The cultivation of confidence and effectiveness in personal decision making requires a home, a school, and a government which are open and free, not closed and coercive. Parents therefore need to be helped to have confidence in the capacity of their children not alone to decide for themselves but to lead their country now and in the future as events, not just history require. Parents also need to be instructed in how in their turn to help their children develop such capacity and confidence in their everyday deciding as well as to apply it to creation of a personal and societal destiny.

A fourth kind of attitude changes which counselors need are changes in the attitudes of their professional educational colleagues. All too many of our professional educational colleagues satisfy themselves with the achievement of learning among students, not with both the achievement of a significant step in psychological development by each student and the further mastery by students of the process of psychological development.

A fifth kind of attitude changes which counselors need to engineer are changes in the attitudes of those who set and administer school policy. School policy presently shows promise of becoming more coercive, not more open. Development of personal decision making capabilities do not flourish in such a climate. The climate will, of course, gradually change if counselors develop and understand development, if students develop and understand development, if parents develop and understand development, and if professional educational personnel develop and understand development. But there will still be many additional American citizens, many of them serving in our governments, industries, businesses, and unions who do not develop and understand development. These are persons whose attitudes counselors must work to change.

The strategy for change in personal, student, parent, professional, and public attitudes has so far been limited to those which take place on the scene of counselors' everyday actions. However, the local, State, and Federal educational policies in which counseling and guidance operate will also need address and change. At present there is no local, State or Federal mandate for incorporating personal development into the common curriculum of any school, not alone the middle school. Since there is no mandate for personal development in the common curriculum of schools, there is also little or no directed financial support for persons qualified to facilitate students' achievements of personal development and its comprehension. Instead, there is some financial support in local, State and Federal educational agencies for adjustive developmental services for the handicapped and disadvantaged, the misbehaving, and others in whom matters of development are then critical to daily or future self direction.

In addition, there is also little or no consensus on how personal development should be introduced into the common curriculum of schools. I have advanced one such process in which I have worked directly with students in collaboration with the teachers of those students. However, it appears that the future of personal development in the common curriculum of schools rests with the infusion of the objectives, means, and comprehension into the work of every teacher, not just into the objectives, means, and comprehension of each counselor alone. Counselors can, and really must, become the leaders in such a change but counselors must recognize that their work will and must change as such introductions occur. When teachers become more adept at giving counseling away to students themselves, the counselors work must shift to more consulting activity with teachers, parents, administrators, and citizens. In addition, the counselor must advance in his or her own understanding of these processes, their aberrations, and the necessary treatments of those aberrations.

In all of these regards, the counselor should learn from the last seven years of effort on the part of the United States government to infuse career education into all schools. Career education is not alone an example of what counselors must seek and accomplish if they attempt pursuit of the developmental goal advanced here for work in middle schools; career education in its form of instruction and organization for personal development and comprehension of and in career also offers a good deal of the content needed to achieve what has been recommended. However, in using career education as both an implementative example and a source of some needed substance, counselors must be very wary of the degree to which the career education examples receiving their attention really embrace personal development and its comprehension. My experience contains numerous incidents in which career education is limited only to vocational choice, not inclusive of the apprehension and comprehension of career development principles during times of career developmental activity. As we reach for stars in what we seek, let's be as certain as we momentarily can that we reach for stars conducive to the growth and development of our ideas, not to stars which will lead us into paths of inconsistency, error, and incompetence.

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The Practice of Counseling in the Secondary School

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The practice of counseling in the secondary schools of America should be considered to be a central, enabling function. It is a central function because of its indispensable relationships to the students, to the operation and offerings of the school, and to the real worlds of both today and tomorrow. It is an enabling function because it assists students to cope with a wide variety of chronic and acute life problems which commonly hinder learning in schools, because it assists students to find valid purpose and rewarding direction in their lives, and because it prompts individual planning and preparation for the achievement of realistic goals.

While assisting students to avail themselves of the personal and economic opportunities of our increasingly complex society, the practice of counseling in the secondary schools is a requisite in enabling success — the success of individual students, the success of schools in meeting the educational needs of people, and the success of our government in the continuation of a free and productive America.

In no way can counseling in the schools be considered as "ancillary" or "supplementary." It is not something added on, "a frill," that might somehow be discarded, no more than teaching or administrating. There can be no question of the necessity of school counseling. With the continuing and increasing complexities before us, the question is more one of how we can be most effective in doing what must be done.

GENERAL WORKING DEFINITION

The practice of counseling is not the same in every secondary school. It is not viewed the same by all counselors, teachers, administrators, students, parents, or counselor trainers. What they believe it to be and what they would like it to become, both, differ distinctly in terms of their own differing points of view and their personal and/or professional needs.

In this paper, the practice of counseling in the secondary schools, or "school counseling," is defined as that which, in practice, school counselors actually do, that which they are generally required and expected to do by those who determine their role. Considerations will not be limited to the one-to-one or small-group activity often supposed to be strictly "counseling," as such.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Guidance and counseling functions have always been with us. The Socratic techniques of thousands of years ago, the forest image of adult and child seated on a log, reasoning together . . . all are not foreign to the spirit of what we try to do today. Effective schools have always tried to utilize helping relationships and the counsel of caring, wise adults in providing for the immediate and future well-being of both individual students and our total society.

As with other aspects of education, guidance and counseling functions have increased in their complexities as an inevitable consequence of the evident increasing complexities and expanding opportunities in life.

During the first part of this century, through the time of World War II, guidance functions in the schools were performed by teachers, some of whom were more or less specialists in teaching courses in occupational exploration and all of whom took part in attempting to guide youngsters toward productive, moral, and patriotic behavior. Media support was limited, but "right living" literature and Norman Rockwell Boy Scout calendars played a significant part.

In the late 1940's and early 1950's, those evolving as specialists in guidance were being schooled in philosophical orientations which emphasized counseling and conceptual understanding of the individual student in greater depth. "Non-directive" and "directive" counseling won champions in theoretical arguments, but in the schools "eclectic" counseling, more commonly, was winning out. That is, counselors used the best of what they learned, to do the best job they could, with what they were required to do in the time that they had to spare.

In the late 1950's, with the passage of the National Defense Education Act, suddenly, there were many additional full-time, relatively well trained counselors. Unfortunately, the government-sponsored counselor institutes responsible, in part, for the increased number of trained counselors in the schools neglected the fact that counselors would not have self-determined roles in the schools and that administrative priorities would not be the same as those imposed by counselor trainers.

The idea of having administrators and counselors attend the institutes in pairs, developing together their school guidance and counseling programs, was rejected. The fact that busy principals do not have the time nor the inclination to be schooled by "idealistic" counselors just back from a summer of "theoretical" training was ignored in favor of turning out twice as many counselors. The result was inevitable. Principals assigned counselors many tasks they needed done, whether these fit under the guidance and counseling heading as the emerging profession saw them or not. Resistance on the part of the most devoted counselors and attempts to incorporate methods not appreciated by administrators tended to alienated administrators and further hindered the healthy development of guidance and counseling programs.

As counselors attempted to act in behalf of students in seeking alternatives to authoritarian squelching in ameliorating behavior problems and called for curriculum changes in answering career-preparation needs of students and the nation, at least a few principals and teachers of established styles and preferences provided opposition.

In general, however, counselors have been dramatically successful. Most criticism turns out to be that people want more, not less, of what counselors have to offer. Students want counselors to be more available to them for assistance with their problems as they see them. Teachers want support in seeing that students are properly placed in their classes and that students "apply themselves." Administrators want "a smooth ship." . . . Counselors have been presented as being "all things to all people." The result of such overwhelming expectations is that they are often judged on the basis of what they do not do rather than on the basis of what they do accomplish.

Role, therefore, and the actual assignment of duties become continuing concerns in understanding the practice of counseling in the secondary schools.

THE ROLE OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL COUNSELOR

Stemming from the inconsistencies in the training of counselors, in their own personal styles and makeups, and in what they are enabled to do by administrative assignments and fundings, there are never-ending questions related to their professional role.

After extensive study of role and function, the American School Counselor Association approved a comprehensive statement of policy on this subject in 1964, which continues to be widely considered valid, if not as a realistic description, as a statement of generally accepted goals among school counselors.

Quoting in part from this statement (amended by the author of this paper only in the updating of pronouns suggesting gender):

"School counselor is a term used in this policy statement to designate a counselor working in a secondary school setting, concerned with and accepting a responsibility for assisting all pupils, and having as his/her major concern the developmental needs and problems of youth. Counseling is perceived as involving a dynamic relationship between counselor and counselee, and thus the school counselor accepts the responsibility of involving him/herself in the lives of pupils with clear and humble knowledge of the implications. . . .

"The counselor is dedicated to the idea that most pupils will enhance and enrich their personal development and self-fulfillment by means of making more intelligent decisions if given the opportunity to experience an accepting, non-evaluating relationship in which one is helped to better understand him/herself, the environment he/she perceives, and the relationship between these. Counseling is essentially such a relationship. The school counselor views him/herself as the person on the school staff with the professional competencies, behavioral science understandings, philosophical orientation, and position within the school necessary to provide such help to pupils.

"The school counselor is not, nor presumably shall he/she ever be, bound to accept any one philosophy regarding him/herself and the society and world in which he/she lives. There are certain philosophical tenets, however, held by all professional school counselors, and consistent with many philosophical positions. . . .

"1. Each pupil is a unique individual. His/her behavior is purposeful and represents his/her attempts to develop in society as he/she perceives it.

"2. Each pupil has a right to acceptance as a human being, regardless of the nature and results of his/her behavior, beliefs, and inherent characteristics.

"3. Each pupil has a right to individual self-development and self-fulfillment. The extent and nature of self-fulfillment is directly a function of the extent to which the individual possesses real and informed personal freedom.

"4. Each pupil has a right to self direction as well as responsibility for making decisions and living with the consequences of these decisions.

. . .

"The strength and health of a demoncratic society is ultimately dependent upon the contributions each of its members makes to others. If in a democratic society each individual is to be free to decide for him/herself the contributions he/she will attempt to make, then it is essential that each individual have substantial self-understanding and personal perspective on which he/she can base his/her decisions.

. . .

"1. The school counselor assists others to develop according to their values in a democratic society of which the counselor is also a member. The counselor attempts to recognize clearly his/her own values and needs, and strives effectively to distinguish them from those of his/her counselees.

. . .

"The school counselor has the responsibility to—

"1. Assist each pupil to meet the need to understand him/herself in relation to the social and psychological world in which he/she lives. . . .

"2. Assist each pupil to meet the need of accepting (defined as being able to behave consistent with) his/her aptitudes, interests, attitudes, abilities, and opportunities for self-fulfillment.

"3. Assist each pupil to meet the need to develop personal decision-making competency. . . .

"4. Assist all members of the school staff to understand the importance of the individual pupil and to provide information, material, and consultative assistance aimed at supporting their efforts to understand pupils.

"5. Determine the influence of the school program on pupil educational and psycho-social development, and to convey such information to other staff members.

"6. Inform other staff members of significant changes in the school and non-school environments which have implications for instruction, the psycho-social well-being of pupils, and to participate in related program development.

"7. Assist parents to understand the developmental progress of their child, his/her needs, and environmental opportunities, for purposes of increasing their ability to contribute to their child's development.

"8. Interpret to the community the importance of consideration for the individual and the contribution of the school counseling program to that end. . . ."

Even if counselors were not required to accomplish extensive tasks beyond the many referred to in this role statement, these alone would be overwhelming if it was expected that each must be pursued to accountable completion.

It remains for each counselor in his/her own work setting to determine and/or discover what duties will actually be required of him/her to perform.

Related to this, the Education Task Force of the 1971 White House Conference on Youth recommended, "School counselors should be made more readily available to all students. The roles of these counselors should be defined at the local level with participation from the students to be served, the employers, and the counselors. The primary concern of counselors should be the worth and the well-being of the students. Therefore, counselors should be free of clerical and administrative duties and should direct their major attention to working directly with and for students."

In 1973, the Governing Board of ASCA approved an updated role statement for secondary school counselors.... This paper is intended to neither be in conflict with nor duplicate the newer ASCA role statement. It is initiated independent of and apart from the authors of the very commendable ASCA document, currently available from ASCA or in The School Counselor, Vol. 21, No. 5, pp. 380-386.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PRACTICE OF COUNSELING

A somewhat dissociated view of the practice of counseling in the secondary school suggests that it can be summed up under the "3 C's" headings of consultation, coordination, and counseling. More realistically, eight headings or general areas of activity provide a comprehensive, yet still abbreviated view:

Counseling and group guidance,
Registration, curriculum, and special-course placement,
Testing,
Records,
Conferences and consultation,
Coordination, liaison, and public relations,
Professional growth, program development, research, and innovation, and
Evaluation and accountability systems.

Counseling and Group Guidance

1. School counselors usually give top priority to providing counseling for students who have serious, urgent, and/or chronic problems, especially when these students are requesting counseling help themselves. However, this is not always possible due to scheduled testing, scheduled group work, responsibilities for registration for the coming school year or semester, conflicting administratively assigned duties, and previously scheduled appointments with others requesting help.

Related to this, it is important that counselors work an extended school year and be on duty in advance of the opening of school to preview records of incoming students, preparing to meet with those likely to need special assistance.

2. Counselors often work with teachers in providing units on careers in various classes.

3. Using group guidance and/or individual counseling methods, counselors commonly work with all the students they are assigned in developing and refining high school plans and post-high-school goals.

4. Often, counselors are involved in providing a variety of orientation programs for students entering or about to enter some new phase of educational experience.

5. Counselors interview students who have been referred as nearing failure in school work or underachieving, as time permits, and attempt to stimulate appropriate action by the student counselees and by related staff members. Alternatives and possible schedule changes are often considered, but school rules, administrative pressures, and/or the recognized worth of staying with a job once accepted tend to prod both the counselor and counselees toward solutions that do not require changes in established schedules.

6. Bulletin boards are often maintained, and other visual and/or audio media are sometimes developed and utilized by counselors in providing informational group guidance.

It is significant to note that the content of counseling and group guidance may be related to education, careers, and/or personal concerns and that the three inextricably overlap and are dependent on one another.

Registration, Curriculum, and Special Course Placement

1. Using group methods and/or individual contacts, nearly all counselors (except for those who work only with seniors) are involved in registering students for the coming school year or semester. Many are totally responsible for the registration of the students they are assigned. They are not only responsible for assisting students to make appropriate and reasonable selections of courses but for certifying that all forms have been completed and that entries are administratively correct. Counselors commonly contact students to clarify apparent misunderstandings and to suggest changes consistent with intent and academic aptitudes. When counselors are obligated to give advice that is not followed, notations may be expected to be entered in order to accountably verify these actions when and if faulty recollections create questions in the future.

While all of this may seem clerical in nature, there are many factors involved, varying from school to school, and counselors have come to accept the truth that a job well done in registration heads off many pointless problems that would otherwise come to the counselor in the future, demanding time-consuming and sometimes impossible solutions.

2. Counselors assigned to work with seniors are similarly responsible for college entrance paper work and/or assisting students with their completion of job entry applications. (Related concerns are discussed later in this paper in the section on issues.)

3. Counselors recommend curriculum changes to decision-makers, as appropriate, in attempting to answer the needs of students. Their responsibilities, opportunities, and activities in this vary considerably from school to school.

4. In gaining the knowledge necessary to adequately advise students as to the options available and to make recommendations calling for curriculum revisions, counselors make considerable investments in time. They must be acquainted with all staff members, be familiar with all procedures, and stay up-to-date on the content of all present offerings and possible future offerings under consideration. They must be familiar with prerequi-

sites of all offerings within the school system and of the post-high-school opportunities students may be expected to consider.

Some schools have well coordinated guidance programs with ample professional leadership which fosters necessary counselor orientations. Some do not, and counselors must seek out enabling information on their own.

This is an area of time-consuming obligation that is often overlooked by those who are not involved in the field as practicing counselors.

5. In attempting to meet the current needs of students throughout the school year, counselors screen many requests for course and/or schedule changes and make recommendations concerning same after consulting with the students involved and, as appropriate, with related staff members.

It is significant to note, however, that the actual changes are made by administrators, or should be, and not by counselors. Counselors should be information-givers and people with whom students may think through their problems in a confidential, non-threatening setting, and not authority figures for students to manipulate or argue with to get what they initially suppose they want.

Testing

1. Most, if not all, school counselors are involved in the administration of group standardized tests. Responsibilities in this area include: the interactions that enter into the selection of the tests, the extensive preparations, the detailed scheduling and special assigning of personnel (sometimes done by administrators, more often done by counselors, with administrative review), the care and secure inventory of test materials, the prebriefing of students, the administration of make-up tests to those who are absent and to those who transfer in at later dates (often requiring weeks of counselor time), the processing and/or scoring, the recording and reporting of results, the interpretation of test results to all concerned, the actual utilization of the information yielded in guiding the individual students toward available opportunities, and the use of test information in attempting to gain necessary and appropriate academic opportunities and training for the students.

While counselors use and understand the merits of standardized tests in their work, it is significant to note that a number of tests counselors are commonly required to administer are not primarily for guidance and counseling purposes, although they may appear to be so on "guidance and counseling and testing" budgets.

2. Counselors are called upon to deal with those who raise questions and for one reason or another voice opposition to tests and those who wish to challenge the validity of specific test scores. Some such individuals are rational and some are irrational in their inquiries, some constructive and some destructive in their intent, but the tasks of dealing with them can be very time-consuming and frustrating.

3. An undetermined number of counselors are qualified to administer and do administer individual intelligence, ability, aptitude, and psychological tests, as appropriate, time permitting, to assist in their work with students.

4. All counselors use test information in the guidance and counseling

of the students and provide test consultation services for teachers and administrators.

Records

1. School counselors are responsible for the organization, development, and maintenance of files of cumulative record folders on all students assigned. This includes the establishment of new folders for new students, review of the contents of all folders, and provisions for both reasonable availability of information to the authorized staff and maintenance of procedures insuring security.

The purpose of these cumulative records is not administrative. These records exist solely to assist in the guidance and counseling of the individual students. While they are considered to be the property of the school, they should be freely open to the students they are meant to serve and to their parents.

2. School counselors commonly record the dates of interviews and conferences they attend. Such entries may be made within the content of the cumulative record folders, along with notes expected to be of value to future counselors and others of the authorized staff in attempting to assist students.

No entries should be made for any other purpose than attempting to assist students. No entries should be made which might betray counseling confidences.

3. School counselors are responsible for the maintenance of files of the group results of all standardized tests administered by counselors.

4. In some schools they are involved in the processing of honor roll determinations or of National Honor Society member selection and/or are responsible for the calculations and updating of class rank on all students assigned.

5. They should be responsible for the orientation of the authorized staff as to what records are available and the meaning of entries and contents. There should be an orderly system through which these orientations are accomplished and updated, especially in regard to staff members new to the school each year.

Secretarial assistance is sometimes provided counselors in the accomplishment of records duties. Too often, this is insufficiently provided or nonexistent, and counselors are taken from professional duties to accomplish "what must be done."

Conferences and Consultation

1. School counselors meet with parents upon request and provide telephone consultation, as time permits.

2. They provide consultation services to teachers and other faculty members, related to concerns within the areas of their assignments and expertise, as time permits.

3. They are often expected to arrange for parent-teacher conferences, as necessary, and to coordinate and chair these conferences.

Coordination, Liaison, and Public Relations

1. School counselors strive to become currently aware of the total school environment, as much as practical considering the time limitations,

and attempt to foster action to improve the total guidance program.

2. They maintain working relationships with other counselors, supervisors, administrators, and related community agencies, as necessary in assisting individual students and in providing continued adequate services.

3. As requested and/or authorized by their supervisors, they attend a variety of community coordinating meetings and provide liaison in the area of community and professional activities.

4. They often are expected to provide coordination and leadership in the total career development program of the school.

5. They often share ideas and information concerning current procedures, coming changes, and productive innovations with colleagues, in their joint efforts to coordinate activities both within their buildings and among the various units of their school systems.

6. They often provide guidance and counseling orientation presentations, related to testing, educational-career planning, and student problems, at school and community functions.

Professional Growth, Program Development, Research, and Innovation

Activity in these areas is often encouraged and authorized but without continuing, specific assignment.

Evaluation and Accountability Systems

Often school counselors are too busy with other duties to evaluate and record their own accomplishments.

Their work is most commonly evaluated by administrators on the basis of the correctness of forms completed, the degree to which the number of schedule changes is minimized (with little thought to the need-fulfilling purposes of changes), the incidental comments of parents and others in the community, the effectiveness shown in carrying out administrative directives, and the lack of complications caused by group testing and other visible counselor-conducted activities.

Understandably, counseling that heads off trouble goes unnoticed, and counseling that results in wise decision-making is hard to substantiate.

It is important to school counselors that they develop and/or update job descriptions for which they may reasonably be held accountable. These should be such that they receive annual formal administrative approval and authorization. Further, counselors should develop, refine, and use systems of record-keeping which insure evidence of satisfactory completion of the work they have been assigned or, in some cases, of the unrealistic expectations imposed upon them.

ISSUES AND CURRENT CONCERNS

Many aspects of the practice of secondary school counseling are dealt with in other papers of this APGA/USOE project. However, the following are of such concern that overlapping considerations may be appropriate in fairly representing this topic. If and when the points of view presented here do not mesh with or may even appear to be at odds with other papers, such inconsistencies should not be seen as matters that must necessarily be resolved among the authors of the original papers, but matters to be recognized as differences within the profession, to be resolved by future interactions.)

Relationships

The development and maintenance of relationships with many different people are necessary to success in school counseling. With inevitable limitations in time available and in the capacities of counselors, the nature of these relationships and the priorities of their importance become crucial questions which repeatedly require consideration.

Students: The relationship with students are indispensable tools of school counselors — relationships with the individual students receiving counseling and with the group, inasmuch as the counselor image held by the various elements of the student body will influence decisions concerning who will come to the counselor and what sort of problems will be brought with them.

Professional school counselors are devoted to the formation and utilization of relationships as outlined in the 1964 ASCA statement (representative portions of which are previously quoted in this paper). Yet, the number of students allotted and the extent of the added noncounseling responsibilities assigned hinder the attainment of such goals. Any consideration of student-counselor relationships must recognize that there are human limitations on the degree to which counselors can extend themselves. The prolonged stress of empathizing with a great many students who are attempting to cope with and resolve problems must be expected to alter both counselors and their relationships with students — whether these problems be due to intolerable circumstances, faulty outlook, inadequate alternatives, destructive and unproductive behavior, or simply developmental resistance to rational planning and acceptance of responsibility.

The mere fact that a counselor is involved substantially with a number of students alters his/her relationships with other students. The fact that a counselor can only be in one place at a time is too often ignored, and students finding the counselor occupied with others may tend to feel, "The counselor doesn't care about me." The counselor commendably busy with fifty students may have hundreds assigned with whom no relationships have been cultivated.

Group procedures and the development of media become imperative if formation of productive relationships with the greater numbers are to be attempted.

Parents: Relationships with parents are secondary to those which counselors attempt to maintain with students.

As noted in the 1964 role statement, counselors "assist parents to understand the developmental progress of their child, his/her peers, and environmental opportunities, for purposes of increasing their ability to contribute to their child's development."

As noted under "Conferences and Consultation" in this paper, "School counselors meet with parents upon request and provide telephone consultation, as time permits."

It often becomes apparent that parents need counseling assistance as much as do the students. In the interest of helping students, counselors attempt to provide parental consultation when this is possible and practical. They attempt to make referrals and suggest where parents may be expected to find additional help.

Counselors do not see it as their role either to blindly support parents or to assume responsibility as surrogates for ineffectual and/or absent parents. However, through counseling with the students and consultation with parents, counselors often help students and their parents to increase their understandings of both themselves and each other, and, at times, counselors do provide supplementary guidance, important to the students' well-being, which may be viewed as compensatory for lack of home and family.

Relationships with parents should not be such as to violate and destroy relationships with students. In fulfilling their professional role, counselors keep the confidences of the students. If this were not the case, there would be no confidences to keep, and the counseling assistance provided students would be severely limited.

Teachers: Counselors must be able to confer with the teachers of their counselees in their shared efforts to provide needed help. Counselors must know the strengths, weaknesses, and general styles of the teachers with whom they will work (often from fifty to one hundred individuals, with the staff changing year after year).

Teachers must know the services they can expect and not expect from counselors and should understand their own part in the total guidance program of the school.

Relationships with teachers can be seen to be so important in gaining help for students that some counselors give these higher priorities than they give relationships with students. Recognizing the unrealistic loads often assigned counselors, there are views that suggest school counselors should be "learning facilitators" rather than counselors, with the emphasis on working with the total staff in fostering and coordinating success of students in school.

However, most school counselors continue to stress individual counseling and group guidance as their primary functions — while, at the same time, attempting to work with the total staff in the students' behalf.

Clearly, counselors should be free to attempt to stimulate change in the students' condition in school whenever this is blatantly the unjustified cause of the students' problems, rather than be expected to use counseling to enable the students to endure.

Job security, also, deserves mention as a significant factor in the need for satisfactory counselor-teacher relationships. Counselors are commonly considered to be "teachers" in contract negotiations. The teachers' understanding and acceptance of the initial assertions of this paper can be necessary to the continued success of the schools of America.

Administrators: Administrators should attempt to minimize the clerical and administrative tasks required of counselors and do whatever possible to foster professional proficiency through provisions for secretarial help, counseling center facilities, and media support. They should require a mutually developed job description of counselors, with review and possible revision of same, periodically.

In every school and school system, there should be designated coordinating responsibilities to specific individuals, in recognition of the total guidance and counseling program. These responsibilities should not be left generally to the principals and never to individuals who are not professionally qualified as school counselors and not currently aware of counselor goals, accomplishments, and needs.

Counselors are obliged to be accepting of the fact that administrators have a more broadly based view of what is necessary and possible in the school and the school system. In assisting the administrators in maintaining an accurate base of understanding, counselors have an obligation to provide informational recommendations and to offer suggestions for solutions to apparent problems.

Administrators should not have cause to see recommendations as criticisms against which they must defend themselves or previously established systems. Recommendations and requests for funding, support, or change should be weighed on their merits and acknowledged.

Whether or not they are followed, all major recommendations should be submitted in writing and a record maintained for possible future reference.

Administrators should respect the confidentiality of the counseling relationship and should not direct counselors to perform authority-figure tasks, which destroy student-counselor relationships.

Counselors should attempt to provide information, not in violation of confidences, which will give evidence of accomplishment and enable administrators to gain adequate support for guidance and counseling activities.

Pupil Personnel Services and Other: Services available within buildings, school systems, and communities vary, as do counselor relationships with them, in different locales.

Coordinating and supervisory personnel should be responsible for periodic orientations of school counselors and for written definitions and/or instructions concerning availability, functions, and procedures of the various services. Once prescribed, counselors should be responsible for appropriate utilization of authorized services.

Relationship Priorities: Many and various relationships are important in enabling school counselors to help students.

However, counselors should not be drawn off into the demands of maintaining working relationships with colleagues to such an extent that they neglect their primary functions. For example, although counselors are expected to provide consultation to other staff members, they should not allow their time and energies to be consumed in this activity to such an extent that they no longer work directly with students (unless, of course, consultation is defined in their work setting as their primary function).

Load

The Education Task Force of the 1971 White House Conference on Youth recommended that counselors should "be available in sufficient numbers to work with all students throughout elementary and secondary schools (one counselor to 50 students)."

This recommendation is realistic in terms of what is needed to deal with the genuine concerns of students and to attempt to compensate for the decreasing number of interested and adequate parents in America. In terms of what should reasonably be expected to find financial support, counselor-student ratios are suggested of one to 200 and upwards.

However, it is idle to debate questions of ratio because they are relatively meaningless without statements of actual assignments of duties and recognition of the settings in which counselors work.

The Educational Task Force of the 1971 White House Conference on Youth also recommended that counselors should "be freed of quasi-administrative, clerical and disciplinary duties which prevent them from attending to the real interests and needs of students."

Factors to be considered, in addition to counselor-student ratio, when attempting to arrive at realistic appraisals of work loads include the severity of the problems being experienced by the students, the special needs of the student population, the clerical help available, the efficiency of the staff in solving rather than creating problems, the curriculum and options available, the support personnel available for referrals from the counselors, the extent of testing responsibilities, the methods and personnel employed in coordinating the guidance and counseling program, the degree to which media has been developed and/or utilized to assist in orientation, guidance, and overlapping administrative functions the counselors may have been assigned, the degree to which the school is enabled to function as a cooperating therapeutic community rather than a frustrating, ineffectual confinement which breeds evasion, violence, and contempt, and the actual expectations of all concerned.

"Generalist" or "Specialist"?

Questions arise as to whether school counselors should be considered to be generalists or specialists, throughout their training and their practice in the schools.

As *generalists*, they are drawn into such an endless array of related activities that they risk being ineffectually expended. It is argued that counselors should guard against attempting to be "all things to all people."

On the other hand, restricting themselves as *specialists*, they can delimit their activities, relationships, and understandings to such an extent that they must be dependent upon others for things that they could more efficiently accomplish with continued freedom of movement and wide recognition of expertise.

In practice, counselors should be considered specialists in that they specialize in helping individual students through counseling relationships. They should not be drawn off into other responsibilities to such an extent that they are unable to perform primary functions. Yet, the wide variety of concerns brought by students to the counseling relationship is so extensive that counselors must be generalists in order to be competent in providing genuine assistance.

Schook counselors are specialists in the sense that their roles differ from those of teachers and administrators. The basic needs of students demand far more than can be provided by busy teachers and administrators, in terms of time available, energy reserves, the training necessary to adequately assist, and the expectations of the authoritarian roles to which they are assigned. School counselors are generalists in that they should be capable and active in many areas.

Generalist-specialist arguments are relatively unproductive. More important, counselors should have realistic assignments, based on the substantiated needs of the students, and should have enabling support in functioning in a professional counseling role.

Emphasis on Individual or Group Procedures?

Inclinations of school counselors differ, with some stressing individual counseling and some, group activities in assisting students.

Both approaches should be seen as necessary and appropriate in answering the needs of students.

The unique and personal nature of many student concerns requires one-to-one attention, but it is foolish to suppose that counselors might be limited to this approach. Many activities within their areas of responsibility may effectively be accomplished through less-costly group guidance and/or group counseling. General orientations, preliminary activities in educational and career planning, completion of forms, group testing, tours, and developmental guidance discussions are common examples of counselor-conducted group activity.

In attempting to utilize the limited time and energies of school counselors, group procedures should be further developed and expanded — not as attempted substitutes for needed individual counseling but as efficient procedures that make more time available for individual counseling.

Media

Similar to the importance of group procedures in completing the excessive work that must be done, there continues the need for the development of practical audio-visual materials which assist in the accomplishment of the work of counselors.

Without adequate media support, students who miss counselor-presented orientations — in such areas as career planning and as registration for the coming school year — are unlikely to receive the same basic information and message. Systems are called for which can be used on a group basis and, later, be used to insure that all students who missed the group presentation (absentees, transfers . . .) are given the same facts, motivations, and opportunities.

Such tools as locally developed automatic-advance, sound filmstrips, with both projectors and small-screen viewers, for example, can take care of preliminary and follow-up information-giving, do this in a more effective manner than the lecture method, free counselors to do other things, and make it possible for counselors to work at higher levels of competency.

Also, the use of printed matter (literature and stories, as well as resource material on colleges, careers, living . . .) computers, and television should be further developed and integrated into information-giving and counseling activities.

"Seeing All Students"?

Controversy is bound to arise whenever counselors are required to "see all students at least once or twice a year," assuming the inference is that they be seen individually.

If the White House Conference recommendation of one counselor for every 50 students was followed, such a requirement would be feasible.

With typical ratios and with typical expectations of additional duties, it tends to place a severe restriction on the effectiveness of counselors in genuinely helping students who need more than an arbitrarily allotted share of the time available.

A disproportionate amount of individual counseling time must necessarily go to students experiencing difficulties related to failure, violence, drugs, sexual abuse, family disruption, transition, and/or other demanding problem areas. Counselors must not be put in the position of having to refuse the giving of urgently needed help because of directives to converse, individually, with each and every student.

School counselors should, however, conduct and/or coordinate an ongoing program with all students intended to meet their guidance and counseling needs to the greatest extent possible, considering the time and resources available.

Group methods must be used to deal with much of the work. Media should be developed and utilized.

While counselors may not "see" all students as frequently as they desire, their schools' guidance and counseling programs should be designed to help all students — through group methods and through the indirect impact of the assistance provided the many students who request or are referred for individual counseling.

Counselor Role in Enabling Change

Should counselors be seen as "agents of change" or as "guardians of established stability;;? Either stereotype is misleading.

School counselors have the obligation to make positive change possible and more probable in their counselees' attitudes, plans, and aspirations — through providing nonthreatening opportunities for realistic understanding.

They have the obligation to attempt to stimulate positive change within the immediate and future environment of the students with whom they work. They request correction of oversights and errors. They recommend individual program changes when these are judged necessary to the well-being of students. They support needed revisions of curriculum and utilize alternative courses and training opportunities.

In general, school counselors are obligated to participate in productive change as a necessary aspect of normal living.

This obligation should not be extended to require counselors to be ombudsmen or student advocates in the sense that they expend themselves in representing the students' voices in their striving to "get what they want." Counselors should provide opportunities for students to think things through and reach intelligent decisions. If students see counselors as simply power-based people to use in attaining what they initially desire, counselors lose their effectiveness as counselors, and the students become further locked into less fulfilling patterns of behavior, using intelligence to develop defensive rationalizations rather than to seek better ways.

Also, the obligation to be concerned with change should not be extended to require counselors to become disproportionately involved in the alteration of curriculum. While many counselors may be amply qualified to be curriculum specialists, and while there is a continuing need for such specialists, counselors should rely on others in such consuming administrative leadership functions. Counselors are obliged to make written and, sometimes, repeated recommendations as they view the needs of students, but they should avoid assuming administrative roles in attempting change in curriculum.

Counselors should guard against being drawn into power-to-change functions if their role is to be preserved, a role which stimulates and brings constructive form to significant change in the citizens of tomorrow.

Career Education

Career Education is a meaningful, practical, motivational approach to education. It is not a guidance program. It should be an integrated part of all the programs of the school.

Counselors may or may not be key members of the staff in its development.

Effective career education requires, first of all, that the school offerings have purpose and be relevant and, then, that students be brought to see this purpose and relevancy in their own lives. School counselors share the latter responsibility with teachers.

In any event, counselors are and will continue to be actively involved in career education, whether or not the schools in which they are employed are fully utilizing this approach.

School counseling is goal oriented.

School counselors strive to help all students choose realistic career goals and develop sound plans to reach these goals. They attempt to stimulate interest in career education among teachers and administrators and to support the career education activities of others in concerted efforts to provide for the genuine needs of students.

Whenever it is within the scope of their assignments, they attempt to assist students during the transition between training and actual employment.

Value Formation

Attempts within education to help students understand and deal constructively with real-life experiences are significant concerns of school counselors. The facilitation of affective development should be a continuing concern of all educators. The felt needs of students, their goals, values, awarenesses, relationships, conflicts — all should be recognized as inseparable from every aspect of education.

In particular, there should be no question of whether or not counselors are involved in value formation.

Teachers, administrators, parents, peers, super-star entertainers, the media, and more are involved in value formation. To suggest that school counselors, who work with students in confidential settings and assist them in their moments of decision, are not also involved is hollow deception.

School counselors must be relatively accepting of a wide variety of political, religious, economic, and moral values in students. They cannot function as counselors if they are not aware that values are ever present, influencing the behaviors and the decisions of the students.

When a counselee is apparently dominated by unproductive and destructive values, the counselor owes it to him/her to offer alternative points of view for consideration, which may, if the counselee chooses, assist in movement toward more satisfying, productive outcomes.

A counselor who is confronted by a student who asserts he/she wishes to be a robber, for example, should not be expected to simply accept this goal as valid and attempt to help the student prepare for a career of crime in the most effective manner possible.

Student Discipline

The counselors' role in the area of discipline problems must be recognized to be different from those of teachers and administrators. While counselors do not condone disruption in the classroom, they do not serve as authority-figure disciplinarians.

They do not try to "fix" students. They try to help them.

Through their counseling functions, they diminish frustration and foster positive-goal-directed activity which may be expected to decrease the extent and severity of disruptive behavior.

Counselors understand the importance of students learning that there are consequences for the violation of rules of order. They also understand that punishment and suppression are not long-range solutions.

In working with students who may be viewed by teachers as "discipline problems," counselors are accepting of these students as worthy individuals and of their points of view. However, in due time, they attempt to offer valid options of more productive and maturely rewarding behavior.

Counselors attempt to help students accept the normalcy of their feelings and to help them discover constructive outlets. They attempt to guide them to courses and other school activities where they may experience success and satisfaction. They attempt to help students to discover realistic goals that bring direction to their lives and purpose to their school work.

Counselors assist students in their strivings to control behavior which leads to additional frustration and, in turn, to more acts of aggression.

They consult with teachers in their mutual efforts to cope with and head off disciplinary problems. However, they realize that if they are to be effective, they must guard against being too closely identified with authority figures against whom the offending students have erected rejecting prejudgments and rationalized defenses.

Confidentiality

It is necessary that school counselors be enabled to provide confidential settings so that they may form relationships which allow and encourage counselees to discuss their situations and concerns realistically. Policies, record systems, physical facilities, and procedures should be such as to make this possible.

The circumstances which may ethically or legally require school counselors to disclose information gained from counseling relationships should be made known to counselees whenever it appears that content may approach these circumstances. That is, when it looks like a counselee might discuss something the counselor cannot keep secret, the counselor should define what can be kept secret and what cannot. (Commonly, counselors are obligated to act to prevent murder and suicide and to refer cases of apparent serious mental illness.)

School counselors having questions on this subject should review the ASCA Position Paper, "Principles of Confidentiality," available from ASCA or in The School Counselor, Vol. 23, No. 4, pp. 287-288.

Drug Abuse

School counselors view drug abuse as occurring amongst a wide variety of students, from different backgrounds and in different settings. They recognize that the reasons for participation in drug abuse activities and/or the drug subculture are societal and personal in nature and are often compensatory and/or escapist in purpose.

Counselors understand that little is accomplished through in-office decisions to "give up bad habits" and return to the void. Within the limitations of the time and opportunities available, school counselors attempt to help students gain self-understanding, satisfying relationships, success in school, realistic expectations, and sound plans for productive fulfillment in the future.

The primary focus in working with those who have had or may have drug-induced experiences is the individual — his/her concerns, present and future — and not the use of drugs.

Whenever it appears that drug use may be discussed in the course of counseling, counselors should clarify whatever legal and/or ethical requirements may exist that might cause the counselor to share information with others. If total confidentiality does not exist, counselees should not be misled to believe that it does.

Actual drug ingestion is not a prerequisite for counselors who work with students whose concerns are associated with drug use. It is important that school counselors do not underestimate their own expertise in helping students in areas that are usually basic in striving toward solutions to the symptomatic participation in drug abuse activities.

Counselors should facilitate referrals to school nurses or others authorized to provide medical attention whenever it is suspected that this may be needed.

College Admission, Financial Aid, and Employment Applications

School counselors should not complete endorsement sections of college entrance applications. They should not make recommendations favoring or disfavoring approval for financial aid or for employment.

They may assist students in completing their forms and provide information concerning college admissions, financial aids, and applications for employment. However, counselors must not be seen as people who must be manipulated in order to gain admissions, financial aids, and/or employment.

Counselors should be counselors — understanding professionals with whom students can confide, be themselves, and find acceptance regardless of their feelings and shortcomings, which would tend to be concealed if counselors were people who had to be impressed so that they would provide needed recommendations.

Goals and Objectives

As the processes of counseling with individual students should be goal-directed, the total program of school guidance and counseling should be, as well. Yet, confusion as to what goals should be pursued sometimes results from the varied emphases of different writings and from contrasting points of view.

A review of the opening assertion of this paper suggests the goals of school counseling to be

1. To assist students to cope with a wide variety of chronic and acute life problems which commonly hinder learning in schools,
2. To assist students to find valid purpose and rewarding direction in their lives,
3. To prompt individual planning and preparation for the achievement of realistic goals,
4. To assist students to avail themselves of the personal and economic opportunities of our increasingly complex society, and
5. To enable success — the success of individual students, the success of schools in meeting the educational needs of people, and the success of our government in the continuation of a free and productive America.

Beyond this general statement of goals, specific job descriptions should be developed, as suggested by the 1971 White House Conference on Youth, "defined at the local level with participation from the students to be served, the employers, and the counselors." These should be such that the completion of the tasks described may be considered to be the objectives of the program and will do much in achieving the general goals suggested above.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Professional Preparation

1. With the goal of bringing together the best of what theorists, trainers, and practicing school counselors have to offer, it is recommended that more practicing school counselors of recognized expertise be engaged, periodically, in teaching guidance and counseling courses at the college level and that more college instructors be engaged, periodically, in full-time, year-long experiences as school counselors (not as consultants but as counselors with full school counseling loads).

Exchange programs should be established in which counselors and counselor trainers exchange jobs for one-year periods, with arrangements made so that their original positions would be guaranteed and with an appropriate allowance for moving expense, any increase in living costs, and maintenance of equitable salary.

2. The training of school counselors should be more in concert with the training of school administrators. There should be at least one course where counselors and administrators are required to develop practical guidance and counseling programs together, working in pairs of one counselor and one administrator.

3. The training of school counselors should be expanded to include organization of realistic work loads with emphasis on the efficient use and full utilization of secretarial, clerical, and paraprofessional assistance.

5. Practical media assistance should be developed in support of school counseling functions, and counselors should receive training, including a

practical internship, in the use of audio-visual aids and books in their work and in the advantages of an overlapping of the counseling center and the media center (or library) in the physical facilities of the school.

6. Training should include workshops in sound, unpretentious accountability systems which routinely document the accomplishments of school counselors.

Legislative and Governmental

1. Any legislation related to counselor activity which will require the completion of reports, clerical tasks, and/or additional counseling efforts should make specific provision for the funding of additional clerical and/or counseling assistance to accomplish the tasks. When and if this is neglected, the work of counselors is undermined, and the legislation tends to be self-defeating.

2. Legislation should not assume that counselors have power to substantially change their role on their own. Institutes intended to alter counseling and guidance programs should be attended by both counselors and their supervising administrators with them working out plans to accomplish authorized, specific funded missions together. If institutes are funded, monies should not be awarded unless there is evidence of, or contractual agreement that there will be, implementation of agreed upon procedures.

3. Legislation making reference to guidance and counseling programs should realistically recognize functions of these programs and should not allude to them in any way that might suggest they are "ancillary" or "subordinate."

4. Same as #1 under "Professional Preparation."

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The Practice of Career Guidance and Counseling

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INTRODUCTION

There could be no more timely topic for this important set of position papers for the American Personnel and Guidance Association than "The Practice of Career Guidance and Counseling." After nearly three quarters of a century of development, this key aspect of guidance and counseling is ready for a period of major emphasis. The events of recent years have occurred so slowly and steadily that it is possible that the millenium may have arrived with few hailing its coming. This paper briefly traces our roots and examines some of the conditions which give rise to contemporary career-related programs. The reaction and support at the national, state and local levels will be touched upon as well as that by associations. Finally, a few problems obstructing successful implementation of this new support will be cited as well as some recommendations for further action.

DEFINITIONS

There is probably more controversy and confusion over terms relating to this topic than any other in this collection of position papers. Therefore, the setting forth of some operational definitions is especially important. For this paper the following definitions have been drawn and modified from a variety of sources.

1. "Work": "Work" is conscious effort aimed at producing benefits for oneself and/or for others.... It is centered around the basic human need for accomplishment and the broader aspects of productivity in one's total life style. Work values are interrelated with human values. To isolate one's work from other interests, values, decisions and activities is to dichotomize a person's life.
2. "Leisure": "Leisure" consists of relatively self-determined activities and experiences which are available due to having discretionary income, time and social behavior. These activities may be physical, intellectual, volunteer, creative or some combinaion of the four.
3. "Career": "Career" means much more than one's job or occupation. It is a "life style" concept which also involves a sequence of work or leisure activities in which one engages throughout their life time.
4. "Career Development": "Career Development" is a major aspect of human development. A person develops from stage to stage, through awareness, exploration, orientation, decision-making, preparation and participation for particular work or leisure activities which are a major part of one's total life development.

5. "Career Guidance": "Career Guidance" is an organized program to assist an individual to assimilate and integrate knowledge, experience and appreciation related to: 1) self-understanding; 2) understanding of the work, society and those factors that affect its constant change, including worker attitude and discipline; 3) awareness of the part leisure may play in a person's life; 4) understanding of the necessity for the multitude of factors to be considered in career planning; and 5) understanding the information and skills necessary to achieve self-fulfillment in work and leisure.
6. "Career Counseling": "Career Counseling" is much the same as other kinds of counseling except it focuses on the career development needs of the individual. It is one aspect of a career guidance program. There is a concentration on self-understanding, career information, career planning and career decision-making in a dynamic relationship. There is special attention to values and attitudes in the context of a fluid social-psychological-economic environment. Just as in all types of counseling (both individual and group) the personal relationship between the counselor and counselee is critical. Other aspects of development such as intellectual, educational, physical, social, personal, emotional, psychological, are considered as appropriate when they relate to one's career.
7. "Career Education": "Career Education" is the totality of experience through which one learns about and prepares to engage in work and leisure as a part of one's way of living.
8. "Vocational Education": "Vocational Education" means organized educational programs which are directly related to the preparation of individuals for paid or unpaid employment, or for additional preparation for a career requiring other than a baccalaureate or advanced degree.

BACKGROUND

Most educational historians agree that modern day guidance activities have their roots in vocational guidance. Jesse Davis (1914), through his work as principal of Grand Rapids (Michigan) High School at the turn of the century, gave significant impetus to "vocational and moral guidance" in the public schools in the big cities and especially in the mid-west. In the east, Frank Parsons, through his book, Choosing A Vocation (1909), and his pioneer work in the early 1900's at the Vocational Bureau in Boston, came to be known as the "Father of Vocational Guidance." Parsons' and Davis' early contributions, tied in with the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917, the founding of the Department of Labor, World War I and other dramatic events of the 1910-1920 period, provided a popular base for vocational guidance in the United States. The guidance movement, as it was called in those days, was supported in subsequent years by a variety of programs at the national, state and local level. There has been especially strong backing from such federal agencies as the Veterans Administration, the Armed Services, Vocational Rehabilitation, the Department of Labor and the U.S. Office of Education. There has been an obvious ebb and flow to this support, but the thread of national policy has been present for nearly seventy years.

National policy has been most evident in the form of specific legislative action at the federal level. Beginning with the first major vocational education act, The Smith-Hughes of 1917, there have been modest provisions for vocational guidance. Each subsequent revision such as the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and Amendments of 1968 and 1972 have strengthened these provisions. In the past three years, major new support has been forthcoming in the form of the:

Education of all Handicapped Children Act of 1975
Educational Amendments of 1976
Youth Employment Act of 1977
Career Education Incentive Act of 1977.

Each of these new legislative enactments has provided for significant new career guidance and counseling activity. The 1976 and 1977 legislation has been reported in the Guidepost and elsewhere.

Public Law 94-142, The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, may not be as well known, but has a number of implications for counselors and other pupil personnel specialists. P.L. 94-142 requires states to provide all handicapped students with yearly individual education plans, education in the least restrictive setting, and access to the full range of programs and services provided to non-handicapped students. Thus, schools must provide career counseling and career education programs for handicapped students in much the same manner as they are provided for non-handicapped students. School psychologists are already gearing up to provide some of these services at the elementary and secondary levels (Hohenshil and Warden, 1978). Humes (1978) spells out some of the tasks ahead for counselors in this new legislation in the January 1978 issues of The School Counselor.

The basis for all of this tangible support for career-related programs has its roots in the social-economic-political conditions of the 1900's, which have been chronicled at great length most recently by Roger Aubry in the 25th anniversary issue of the Personnel and Guidance Journal (February 1977), and earlier in works commissioned by the National Vocational Guidance Association such as Borrow's (Ed.) Man in a World at Work (1964) and Career Guidance for a New Age (1973), and Herr's (Ed.) Vocational Guidance and Human Development (1974). Out of these writings, there is general agreement that a variety of influences weighted most heavily in favor of support of the guidance movement, such as:

- The Progressive Education Movement
- The Rural-to-Urban Population Movement
- The Child Study Movement
- The Psychometric Movement
- The Civil Rights Movement
- The Industrialization Movement
- The Vocational Education Movement
- The Career Education Movement.

When looking at the broad sweep of contemporary topics influencing the guidance field today, career guidance and counseling must rank high, both because of their historical importance and their impact on current practices in the field.

PRESENT IMPORTANCE

No term in the popular or professional literature has received as much attention since 1970 as the term "Career." Though there are obvious exceptions, gradually it has come to replace the word "vocational" or "occupational" when describing certain types of guidance or counseling. The term enjoys its current crest of importance for much the same reasons that have given rise to its predecessors in the past, i.e., social-economic-political conditions. This time it grows out of issues like the following:

1) A rising jobless rate, especially for those under 25
2) A concentrated effort to provide equal employment opportunities for women, minorities and handicapped
3) A declining interest in attending colleges and universities
4) A new focus on work and leisure in American society
5) A call for greater relevance for education as it relates to work and particularly the education-to-work transition
6) A new pressure for career-related continuing education opportunities for adults of all ages — especially those contemplating mid-career changes.

Some of this evidence has come from the popularity of books such as Studs Terkel's Working, the HEW supported study which led to Work in America, Network television programs like the CBS News essay, "Mr. Rooney Goes to Work," surveys like the annual Gallup Poll on education reported in the Phi Delta Kappan (1977), studies similar to those reported by Prediger (1974) for The American College Testing, or from personal appeals like former Commissioner of Education — Siendy Marland's campaign for career education. Whatever the evidence of the support for it, the term career is at a high point of attention. There can be no more timely topic for this series of position papers. There have been a variety of reactions to this newly-discovered sense of importance from various groups.

ASSOCIATION REACTION

The American Personnel and Guidance Association and its several divisions have shown active interest in the current career guidance and counseling emphasis. As might be expected, the National Vocational Guidance Association (NVGA) was among the first to speak out. NVGA joined with the American Vocational Association to issue a "Position Paper on Career Development (1973)." This statement is now a leading source of definitions and duties, roles, and responsibilities in this area.

The Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES) likewise formed a Commission on Counselor Preparation for Career Development/Career Education which has issued an ACES position paper (1976) "Counselor Preparation for Career Development/Career Education" calling for major attention at the counselor preparation and practice level to career development/career education. The paper urged ACES to carry out the following mandate:

1. Continue to support APGA's efforts for passage or federal legislation designed to meet human needs through the further development of career guidance programs and career guidance personnel.

2. Strongly support the career development movements in public schools, institutions of post secondary education, and community agencies.
3. Propose changes in counselor preparation programs and state certification standards to include expanded competencies in career guidance and career education.
4. Develop and implement national, regional, and state seminars to assist counselor educators and supervisors to acquire the necessary skills to train others in the career guidance competencies cited above.
5. Recommend that at least one special issue of Counselor Education and Supervision be devoted to career development in counselor education and supervision.
6. Support the development of a series of short (30-50 page) training monographs based on "how to" aspects of career development in counselor education and supervision. Suggested topics might include: career development through career education, career development through group counseling, career development through individual counseling, career development of special groups, etc. A complementary series of color video-tapes might also be developed and distributed through APGA publications.
7. Strongly urge individual ACES members to examine all aspects of their counselor education and supervision programs — theory, practicum, assessment, internship, etc. — to modify them as appropriate, and find new ways to infuse career development into various elements of the training program.
8. Seek the support and cooperation of related organizations such as ASCA, NVGA, and AVA to assist in the training and retraining of counselor educators and counselor supervisors for career development.

APGA issued its own position paper in 1975 entitled Career Guidance: Role and Functions of Counseling and Personnel Practitioners in Career Education. In this paper, six important counselor role statements were endorsed by The Association as appropriate and necessary for the conduct of career education in any setting as follows:

1. Provide leadership in the identification and programmatic implementation of individual career development tasks.

2. Provide leadership in the identification classification and use of self-educational and occupational information.

3. Provide leadership in the assimilation and application of career decision-making methods and materials.

4. Provide leadership in eliminating the influence of both racism and sexism as cultural restrictions of opportunities available to minority persons, females, and others who may be affected.

5. Provide leadership in expanding the variety and appropriateness of assessment devices and procedures required for sound personal, educational, and occupational decision-making.

6. Provide leadership in emphasizing the importance and carrying out the functions of career counseling.

Since 1971, almost every major education association has devoted a special issue of a journal or commissioned a book on a career-related topic. For example, the May 1975 issue of The Personnel and Guidance Journal (1975), and The National Association of School Psychologists devoted two issues of The School Psychology Digest to career education in 1974 and vocational education for special needs of students (1978). In 1977, the highly respected American Association for Higher Education and the American Council on Education centered their conventions around the issue of work and education. The prestigious Council of Chief State School Officers (1975) has developed an elaborate position statement endorsing career education in the strongest possible terms. Even the National School Boards Association (1977) has issued an important research report. Professional Association concerns are clearly visible in this area. They have gone on record supporting expanded career-related activities at all educational levels.

FEDERAL REACTIONS

The initiatives of Commissioner of Education, Signey P. Marland, in the early 1970's signaled a visible federal level of support for career-related programs. Directly or indirectly, Marland's interest led to the formation of an Education and Work group in the National Institute of Career Education in the U.S. Office of Education (and subsequent authorizing legislation under Section 406 of the Educational Amendments of p974 with $10 million annual funding), and many program emphasis kinds of approaches, such as the use of vocational education funds for career education. Probably the most important action to come out of the Marland thrust was a policy paper of the U.S. Office of Education called An Introduction to Career Education (1975). This has served as a rallying point for both federal, state, and local policy and practice. The monographs brought out by the Office of Career Education and the National Advisory Council on Career Education have also helped to encourage a high level of discussion and dialogue on career-related subjects.

In addition to this work in the Office of Education, there have been some very active inter-agency task forces dealing with the crucial "school-to-work" transition issue. This initiative came primarily from the U.S. Department of Labor. Their interest is most evident in the collection of policy papers published in book form in From School to Work: Improving the Transition (1976) prepared for the National Commission for Manpower Policy. A follow-up report of sorts is Barry Stern's book Toward a Federal Policy of Education and Work (1977), which details a variety of recommendations to be carried out at the national level such as the following:

1. Expand research to assess the kinds of life scheduling patterns which appeal to people as well as serve the collective public interest.
2. Help states establish occupational and educational information systems as well as (educational consumer) brokering services which would help individuals of all ages make more intelligent choices about career, and educational and leisure activities.
3. Develop a public informational program that would encourage labor and management in both the public and private sectors to negotiate plans and collective bargaining agreements that allow individual

employees to choose among varying amounts of and ways of scheduling work and time off.

4. Consider legislation which would enable more workers to take temporary leave of absence from their jobs in order to participate in activities which might facilitate career or life improvement, renewal, or redirection.

It can be seen from these recommendations that solutions for work-education (career) problems will be expected through a more systematic approach to information systems and flexible working patterns for employees of all ages. Work and leisure will be viewed as interactive and complementary forces rather than opposites with little to add to the other. Federal level policy planners like Stern see some rather significant changes in the problems facing career guidance and counseling in the future.

STATE REACTIONS

A study of state legislation affecting career education has been reported by Kazanas and Miller (1977). They note that by mid-1977 sixteen states have enacted career education implementing legislation. Another fourteen states were considering such legislation. Funding for these programs varied from zero to four million dollars, thus reflecting an interest in career education in some states more at the policy level than the actual funding level-practice. With the signing of the Career Education Act of 1977 there may no longer be a need for separate state legislation at least until the more state oriented funded portion of the Act comes due in 3 to 4 years. State level involvement and support are best reflected through dollar authorizing appropriation in state budgets and recommendations in state plans. Both activities will grow out of the State Department of Education with input from State Advisory Councils of Vocational Education and the soon-to-be formed State Advisory Councils of Career Education. These groups will develop the goals and objectives for programs in each state under the two main pieces of national legislation, which will influence career guidance and counseling for the next several years.

There have been other dimensions of state level reaction which can be illustrated by the mandated employment counseling job placement program reported in the Virginia Guidelines (1976). In the Old Dominion the General Assembly passed legislation which required all school divisions to establish such a program for each student and school-leader. The responsibility for funding and staffing the program was left to the localities since there was no state-wide appropriation. Consequently, the results were somewhat uneven as shown in a study by McDaniels and Hinkle (1977). This type of state mandated career guidance and counseling activity is more the exception than the rule, though, and not discernable as any type of trend.

LOCAL REACTIONS

With the pace of federal legislation in 1976 and 1977, it is logical to conclude that there was a strong feeling on the part of the Congress that there needed to be massive support for career guidance and counseling activities at the local level. Clearly, if there had been strong programs in place there would be no need for federal support! So, from a national prospective, there was identified a great need to expand and strengthen career-related activities.

It is virtually impossible to determine what is really going on at all local levels. The most frequently quoted study citing student needs in this area is the Prediger Study (1974) for American College Testing. In this study students at both the 9th and 11th grade levels expressed strong interest in having expanded career guidance assistance. Similar concerns had been expressed in earlier studies in the on-going PROJECT TALENT Research (1973).

Aside from the two national studies cited, there is only limited data on student needs or perceptions of career guidance assistance. There does not seem to be a significant number of studies dealing with programs and results on a larger than single local agency or single state. With the number of federal and state-funded projects in career-related areas over the past 5 to 7 years, there are some solid examples of good single-effort programs with positive results.

The Virginia study on school-based job placement and employment counseling cited earlier (1977), probably reflects a kind of microcosm for the rest of the country. In that sampling of school divisions, it was found that some (about 33%) were doing outstanding work and had comprehensive programs with good administrative backing, adequate staff development, with high levels of praise for the programs coming from students. About a third had modest programs and support, and another third had little or no program. A similar study conducted by the National Center for Educational Statistics (1977) showed similar results in terms of programs available. The impact of the new federal aid should be to bring all of the programs up to the standard of the top one-third while providing further support for those already doing good work. That is the theory anyway! — bring all programs up to the level of the best ones available in the state and the nation. That is the heart of the equal opportunity argument.

SOME PROBLEMS

A number of problems remain to be solved before all this can happen. First, is adequate pre-service and in-service education for counselors to make the new career-related programs effective. Second, is the adequate supervision on a day-to-day, month-to-month basis to follow-up to see that mandates are carried out. Third, is the realignment of counselor priorities to make all of this happen. The ACES Position Paper on Counselor Preparation for Career Development/Career Education speaks to this problem of pre- and in-service education, and extends some clear approaches. How well this gets translated into practice remains to be seen. The American Institute for Research has developed some excellent in-service modules for use in this area and other models are reported by Hohenshil and Ryan (1977).

Fourth, is the issue of the relationship of counselors with vocational education professionals. Over the years there has been a sort of antagonism between some counseling professionals and some vocational educational professionals. The new legislative thrusts could go in one of two ways:

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1) a separate system of career guidance and counseling paid for out of vocational education funds and not a part of the current school program or, 2) an integration and expansion of career guidance and counseling activities with generally-agreed upon goals and objectives between counselors and vocational educators.

Fifth, is the relationship with major non-school counseling programs established under Comprehensive Education and Training Act and Youth Employment Act type funds. This is not an entirely new problem since MTDA has been around since early in the 1960's but the dimensions of it are greatly enlarged under this new legislation administered by the Department of Labor. The qualification of non-school (CETA) staff and their relationship to school counselors are already under question and give no promise of an early solution.

Sixth, is the relationship between career education and counseling. To some this doesn't appear to be much of an issue; to others it takes on major significance because of who will assume the leadership for career education. In many settings it has been non-counseling personnel. Also, some problems have emerged where there has been a lack of cooperation among pupil personnel services groups in serving career development needs of students. The APGA Position Paper (1975) seeks to clarify this, and a recent paper by McLean on "The High School Counselor and Career Education" (1977) should also prove helpful.

Seventh, is the need to establish a more effective system to create, organize, evaluate and disseminate occupational information. McDaniels (1977) has already assessed the problem in a report to the Department of Labor. The National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee and its counterpart in The States (SOICC) are expected to assist in the solution, but are still in the planning stage.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the significant legislation related to career guidance and counseling passed in the past several years, the form of these recommendations will be how to deal effectively with the support now unfolding — not how and what is needed as major new legislative initiatives. There may be some usefulness in a limited patch-up or a technical amendment, but that seems to be about all. Instead, what is needed is a set of recommendations which will help to implement those measures already enacted. Further, state and local initiatives are needed in place of federal level initiatives.

It seems clear that the center of action in directing the practice of career guidance and counseling will be in state and local education agencies. Recommendations offered take on the complexion of how to deal with what is currently available as follows:

1. Review certification requirements in each state to determine if there are sufficient career guidance and counseling requirements including both didactic and clinical experiences at the pre-service level. Further, certification renewal should be dependent on yearly in-service graduate work in career-related areas.
2. Implement in each counselor education program the content of the ACES Position Paper on Counselor Preparation for Career Development/

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Career Education. This also should become part of the NCATW or other program approval/requirements.

3. Organize ways to work with principals and superintendents in order to provide a high-level and systematic career guidance and counseling program for every school. It is further recommended that an assistant superintendent for guidance be appointed in local education agencies in order to assure adequate supervision at the local level and to help eliminate some of the widely divergent practices.

4. Provide sufficient support for state education agencies in order that they can more adequately supervise the career guidance and counseling work in local education agencies. This need is especially acute in sparsely populated areas where there is a possibility of limited career programs and minimum local supervision.

5. Expand in-service graduate offerings in the area of career guidance and counseling. This expansion should be supported out of federal and state funds, with an emphasis on bringing the large force of counselors already employed up to the state-of-the-art in career-related areas.

6. Harmonize the legion of educational-occupational information systems now abroad through commercial and non-commercial sources into a workable approach at the user level.

7. Create through extensive research and development efforts easily administered means of measuring effectiveness of career guidance and counseling practices.

8. Seek new models for cooperative working relationships between counselors and vocational educators at the state and local levels.

9. Demonstrate new ways to operate efficiently with state and local planning and advisory groups in order that appropriate goals and objectives are established for career guidance and counseling with necessary budgeting and appropriations.

10. Support efforts to develop model program approaches to working with non-school education and training activities.

SUMMARY

This paper has focused on the Practice of Career Guidance and Counseling. An extensive set of definitions has been provided to give some clarity concerning terminology. There has been a discussion of the conditions which have supported the development of career guidance and counseling over the past 70 years, and the reactions from associations as well as at the federal, state, and local agency level. Some current problems have been posed as well as a set of ten recommendations.

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Relationship of Guidance and Counseling to the Established and Emerging School Curriculum

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TERMINOLOGY

The word curriculum, like the terms guidance and counseling, is difficult to define. For some, curriculum refers to a textbook or an outline of a course of study. For others, the term curriculum encompasses all of the learning that occurs in school as a result of teaching and instruction. As a unifying principle in this paper, a definition of curriculum will refer to "that planned set of identified educational goals and learning experiences that are organized in a manner to facilitate evaluation of learner outcomes" (Hampson 1975, p. 1).

Just as the word curriculum is difficult to describe, so are adequate definitions of the terms guidance and counseling. Historically, guidance preceded counseling in professional literature and in practice. Today, distinctions between these two terms have blurred. Nonetheless, there do seem to be important differences between these terms and an attempt will be made to sharpen these distinctions. Guidance in this paper will refer to a comprehensive system of functions, services and programs in schools designed to affect the personal development and psychological competencies of students. As an educational concept, guidance is the sum total of those planned experiences for students designed to achieve such developmental or educational outcomes. As an educational service, guidance like teaching, consists of a number of functions and operations to be utilized by students in attaining developmental and educational outcomes. Finally, as a practice, guidance is descriptive of the work of the school counselor (Kehas 1968, p. 22), and other supportive personnel when engaged in guidance activities.

In contrast to guidance, counseling in this paper will refer to a method or technique applied to individuals or groups to enhance their personal development and psychological competencies. Further, counseling is distinguished as a process incorporated primarily under the administrative rubric of guidance and is viewed as one of many essential functions and services under the overall framework of services to pupils.

HISTORY

The relationship between guidance and counseling and the school curriculum is a significant area for exploration because the majority of educational objectives for students are explicitly stated under curriculum as well as the means for their attainment. As a consequence, guidance and counseling can accept these predetermined objectives and carve out roles and functions in harmony with these goals. On the other hand, guidance and counseling may accept some predetermined curricular objectives but reject or modify others. In fact, guidance and counseling may even wish to posit and further educational objectives of a slightly different order than traditional subject-matter disciplines.

Although there has always been a relationship between guidance and the established school curriculum, this kinship has seen numerous alterations. Many educational historians trace the initial relationship between guidance and the accepted school curriculum to Jesse B. Davis (Brewer 1942; Miller 1961). As a school administrator in Detroit and Grand Rapids, Michigan at the turn of the twentieth century, Davis was concerned with the vocational problems and social dilemmas of his students. To prepare these students for life beyond schooling, Davis utilized the existing curriculum in English composition to introduce a weekly unit in vocational and moral guidance. This course was in time taught by regular English teachers and was viewed as a series of learning experiences complementing the existing curriculum by addressing areas and topics theretofore ignored or neglected.

Coincidentally with the early recognition of Davis for the need for some type of curricular program for students in expanding midwestern industrial centers, another guidance pioneer arose in an industrial complex on the eastern seaboard. Frank Parsons, often called the Father of Guidance, did not begin his career or work in the public schools. However, his work in settlement houses and community agencies with out-of-school youth led him to believe that vocational guidance must eventually "become a part of the public school system in every community" (Lasch 1965, p. 157).

Vocational guidance began in the large cities and towns of early twentieth century America. The work of Davis and Parsons was emulated by many other persons in schools who were concerned with the lack of attention by school people to the transition from school to the world of work. However, the entrance of vocational guidance into the curriculum and structure of American public education was a difficult task in the early twentieth century. Even though the needs recognized by the early pioneers in vocational guidance and related reform movements were legitimate and real, they generated a great amount of opposition and hostility. Some of this reaction came directly from public school personnel and the remainder from vested interests among the general public. Not surprising, the bulk of criticism came from those who felt a change in emphasis and direction in the school curriculum would weaken and destroy the best of the past. In this regard, Barlow (1966) noted that "students were denied access to these programs by subject-matter prejudices of school personnel and perhaps to an even greater extent by unrealistic parental attitudes" (p. 5).

Notwithstanding the early critics of vocational guidance, the movement begun by Davis and Parsons slowly spread. By 1910, over thirty-five cities in the United States had implemented or were working on plans for vocational guidance in their public school curriculums. The advent of World War I would stimulate this movement and its credibility would be further increased by the adoption of many practices developed in the growing field of psychometrics during and following World War I.

Although psychometrics gave the vocational guidance movement respectability and a firm foothold in the public schools, the price of this new found acceptance would be an overdependency on tests and information-giving as a basis for guidance interventions. In turn, many of the dreams of the founders of vocational guidance that rested on a direct connection between guidance and the established school curriculum would be cut short by a new emphasis on educational guidance.

The term educational guidance has two distinct meanings. On the one hand, educational guidance can refer to help given to students in selecting courses, adjusting to school, orienting themselves to new surroundings, and in deciding on courses of action upon completion of schooling. This view of educational guidance was first introduced in the public schools in the 1920's (Proctor 1925) and by the depression years of the 1930's it vied with vocational guidance for popularity. It was designed as a process to aid in the distribution and adjustment of pupils. As such, it centered on problems and concerns involving students and their relationships with one another and teachers that called for attention beyond that available in most schools. By the 1940's, educational guidance as a process of pupil distribution and adjustment was widely accepted by many in the guidance profession (Bratton 1945; Flory, Allen and Simmons 1944; Strong 1953; Symonds 1946; Traxler 1957; Williamson and Foley 1949).

Another form of educational guidance first emerged in the 1920's and was articulated in the early 1930's. Although termed 'educational guidance,' this form of educational guidance was a far cry from the distributive and adjustive version of guidance. In fact, the leading spokesman for this movement, John Brewer (1932), would repudiate this other view by noting that, "Guidance is neither adjusting nor suggesting, neither conditioning nor controlling, neither directing nor taking responsibility for anyone... the work we do in schools may be described as helping children to understand, organize, extend and improve their individual and cooperative activities... (This) means guidance" (p. 2).

Brewer's view of guidance practically equated all educational experiences and activities with guidance. He took very seriously the publication of the Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education by the Bureau of Education in 1918. The thrust of this document was on knowledge and competencies directly related to such daily and pervasive areas of living as citizenship, health, home membership, vocations, ethical character, fundamental mental processes, and worthy use of leisure time. Obviously, the serious adoption of these objectives signaled a major change in the direction of American education and the ever-widening audience of students. Education for the elite through the classical curriculum would at this period in history receive a serious challenge from which it would never recover.

To accomplish the aims of guidance, Brewer (1932) felt there were at least three viable approaches. The first "may be a direct attack, with a curriculum of activities and guidance, designed to give children an opportunity to learn living in the laboratory of life. Second, there may be set up alongside the present entrenched 'studies of the curriculum,' and in no way interfering with these studies, a system of counselors, homeroom teachers, class advisors, student deans, or other agencies to be used for the purposes of guidance. Third, with or without a system of counselors, the present studies of the curriculum may gradually be modified in content and method so that they will bear upon life activities, and presumably aid the pupils in the improvement of their living" (p. 3).

By expanding the guidance base to include all endeavors engaged in by students, Brewer drastically challenged the then existing foundation of guidance. Whereas guidance had earlier been primarily concerned with the choices and decisions of young people regarding the world of work and vocations, Brewer opened up the entire spectrum of education and human development to guidance. This refocus therefore accomplished two ends. First, it encompassed the earlier and narrower version of vocational guidance into a new model whereby it was but one spoke in the wheel. Second, it laid a foundation for a theory of guidance intervention directly linked to the process of education.

Brewer's ability to relate guidance directly to instructional and curricular activities allowed for a thorough questioning of the entire scope and sequence of the educative process. This questioning was not possible nor sought after by the founders of vocational guidance. Instead, vocational guidance concentrated solely on secondary education and the essential problems related to school-leaving and vocational employment.

Mathewson (1962) has noted that the heritage of John Brewer is especially noteworthy by the creation of a "perception of the guidance process as a special type of learning activity that needs to be continuous, cumulative, and developmental" (p. 80). This "perception" of Brewer's would lie dormant for many years following his writings. It would emerge periodically but it was not until the 1960's that "developmental guidance" was again posited by many guidance leaders as the central component in school guidance programs.

The depression years of the 1930's and the war years of the 1940's would see combinations of vocational and educational guidance in public schools. Testing and various diagnostic measures would continue to be heavily relied on by school counselors and supplemented by the increasingly popular technique of trait and factor counseling (later to be known as directive or counselor centered). The formal school curriculum would undergo few changes during these twenty years of economic depression and war even though wartime testing programs had consistently revealed gross inadequacies in public school education (Goodlad 1964, 1966).

Although few significant changes occurred in school curriculum during the 30's and 40's, there were sporadic instances of guidance attempts to influence curriculum and instruction. In particular, classroom guidance was encouraged through the vehicle of student homerooms. These attempts by and large met with failure due to "a poor match of programs to students; teachers and counselors were untrained to conduct such interventions; the time period was too brief; and there was insufficient administrative support for this type of education" (Miller 1977, p. 13).

The post World War II ear ushered in many changes in public school guidance and counseling. In particular, the work of Carl Rogers (1939, 1951, 1954) dominated the field of counseling. Almost overnight, testing was replaced by counseling as the key guidance function. In turn, counseling would rise to such eminence in the next few years that it would compete and contend with guidance in regard to the use of the counselor's time and the overall purpose of guidance and counseling. What began as an adjunct tool of guidance would now raise a challenge for ascendancy in its own right.

The loss of interest in guidance in the late 1940's and 1950's was not totally replaced by counseling. Instead, the pioneer work of Donald Super (1953, 1955, 1956) and Ginzberg (1951) transformed the entire area of vocational guidance into the new field of career development. Although it would take nearly two decades for this seminal work to be operationalized vis-a-vis the public school curriculum, in combination with Rogerian counseling, it effectively curtailed the previous curricular emphasis of guidance on vocational concerns.

In addition to dramatic upheavals in their own profession in the 1950's, counselors were also faced with sudden changes in traditional school curriculum brought about by the launching of the Russian Sputnik I in 1957 and the reports of James Conant (1959, 1960, 1961). Although Sputnik and the Conant reports triggered massive reactions on the part of the American public eventually resulting in extensive subject-matter revisions, the origins of these curricular changes went back at least as far as World War II. American schools had simply failed to keep abreast of scientific advancements, especially in the fields of mathematics and science (Goodlad 1964, 1966).

Massive changes in public school subject-matter were accompanied in the late 1950's and 1960's by a decided increase in the number of school counselors. The relation of these new counselors to the emerging curriculum was twofold. First, counselors were to identify gifted and talented youngsters and schedule them into proper tracks and classes. Second, counselors were to advise and eventually place these individuals into appropriate post-secondary schools.

In effect, the bulk of curricular changes brought about in the post-Sputnik years relegated counselors to a great deal of clerical and quasi-administrative positions. Counselors were expected to test students, identify and schedule students according to ability and interest, maintain files and records on pupils throughout their stay in school, periodically review and update files and counsel students having school difficulty, assist teachers with students having curricular or behavioral difficulties, provide information about post-secondary educational opportunities, and eventually, place gifted and talented students in appropriate colleges and universities. In short, the demands of assisting teachers and administrators to implement school curricula effectively curtailed any development of guidance and counseling goals complementary to, but distinct from, subject-matter disciplines. The real convlict for counselors in the 1960's and 1970's was the desire on their part to engage in individual and personal counseling with students and the press of the school to deal with academic and administrative matters. This became all the more frustrating to counselors as new counseling techniques, programs of career development, advances in group work, psychological education, and other guidance improvements became known and available. What good were all of these models and techniques if the school counselor was mired down eight hours a day in clerical and semi-administrative functions?

At present, the relationship of guidance and counseling to the established and emerging curriculum in public schools is nebulous. For too long a period of time school counselors have not engaged in dialogue with those creating and implementing the school curriculum. Conversely, for too long a period those creating and implementing school curricula have not sought dialogue with counselors. However, of even greater consequence than sustained dialogue between these parties is the matter of issues to be discussed. The next section will suggest some current and timeless issues related to curriculum and guidance and counseling.

CURRENT ISSUES

Although a number of issues can clearly be defined in discussing the relationship of guidance and counseling to the school curriculum, three such issues seem of paramount importance. The first is that of the role of the school counselor in the development, implementation and evaluation of the school curriculum. The second issue revolves around the definition of guidance and counseling as a curricular, extra-curricular or non-curricular function in schools. Does guidance and counseling desire inclusion in the school curriculum in achieving its goals and if so by what means? The third issue hinges on the successful resolution of major definitional problems facing guidance and counseling vis-a-vis the school curriculum and addresses the matter of organization. Shall guidance and counseling be organized as a set of unique services to students or as an intentional and systematic program with a curricular component?

In recent years, secondary school counselors have taken over a majority of tasks previously assumed by teachers and administrators. Many of these duties are directly related to the selection of specific school subjects and student scheduling. Increasingly, these tasks and related clerical/administrative functions have eroded the time and accessibility of counselors for outcomes directly related to guidance and counseling objectives. Instead, counselors have been expected to perform jobs on the periphery of curriculum in order that major educational outcomes can be accomplished in classrooms and elsewhere through teachers.

The current view of guidance and counseling as ancillary or secondary to curriculum and teaching is not surprising. The business of schools has long been accepted as one in which curriculum and instruction are predominant and all others, including administration, are welcome only insofar as they contribute to these ends. The problem for school counseling and guidance is therefore one of accommodation to the current definition and determining how best to accomplish its own goals within this limitation or finding alternative means of goal attainment.

Accepting the status quo does not necessarily mean accepting existing conditions and responsibilities. Conceivably, if school counselors are to aid other educators in achieving curricular outcomes, school counselors should have a stronger voice in the design, implementation and assessment of curriculum. Currently, it is doubtful if counselors have a say in any of these aspects of the curriculum even though a large portion of their time is spent in activities related to curricular outcomes.

At the very least, it would appear that school counselors should be addressing a number of critical questions regarding curriculum with their colleague teachers and administrators. Some areas that seem in need of clarification and resolution are the following:

1) Who is most knowledgeable in advising students of curricular offerings, counselors or teachers? What areas of expertise/knowledge do each have in common and what is unique to each? How can this expertise/knowledge best be organized and presented to students?
2) What rationale justifies the use of school counselors as schedulers of students for curricular offerings and as persons empowered to drop and add subjects/classes? Does this rationale include an explanation of how these responsibilities can overcome antagonisms between the stated aims of counselors and how they are perceived by students, teachers and parents when carrying out these responsibilities?
3) If school counselors are viewed as essential agents in helping teachers to successfully achieve curricular objectives, shouldn't school counselors be given a voice in determining curricular objectives? If so, what vehicle(s) can be created to accomplish this outcome?
4) Within the current school curriculum, irrespective of specific disciplines, can a core of objectives be identified that is similar in nature to the stated aims of guidance and counseling? If so, how can school counselors and teachers work together (inside and outside of classrooms) to achieve these objectives?
5) What role should school counselors play in assessing and evaluating the formal and informal school curriculum? In particular, based on counselor contact with students, how should counselors deal with curricular commissions and omissions reported to them?

To this point, the majority of questions involving guidance and counseling and the school curriculum have assumed that guidance and counseling exists largely outside the school curriculum and is supportive of curriculum and instruction. However, since its inception guidance at various times has coveted inclusion in the school curriculum. This path began with the pioneer work of Jesse Davis and has since ranged from the dreams of John Brewer to the failure of homeroom guidance to the resurgence of vocational guidance in the form of programs of career development. More recently, this desire for curricular expression has surfaced in the growing area of psychological education (Personnel and Guidance Journal 1973; The School Counselor 1973; Counselor Education and Supervision 1975).

The inclusion of guidance and counseling in the on-going public school curriculum was anathema in the years following the counseling revival stimulated by Carl Rogers. The bulk of objectives promulgated by guidance and counseling leaders at that time were constructed essentially from models derived from one-to-one psychotherapy and counseling. As such, the work of the school counselor was conceived primarily in terms of individual contacts with students in isolation from others. The school curriculum was seldom seen as a viable means of accomplishing guidance and counseling objectives.

The initial attraction of school counselors to one-to-one counseling models drew them away from any serious consideration of the school curriculum as a means of achieving guidance and counseling outcomes. However, individual counseling simply did not produce the results its advocates proclaimed (Armor 1969; Carkhuff 1972, 1976; Ginzberg 9171; Kaufman and Lewis 1968; Tamminen and Miller 1968). In addition, the late 1960's and early 1970's would see inviting alternatives to individual counseling. Among these would be imaginative uses of group counseling, career development through multi-media and classroom approaches, the use of the computer in numerous areas related to guidance, direct curricular applications through psychological education and a host of guidance and counseling programs developed and marketed by commercial publishers. All of these alternatives would directly or indirectly impinge on the formal school curriculum. In turn, a serious commitment by counselors to any of these alternatives would call for a renegotiation of the working requirements of counselors and the accessibility of students to counselors through the existing school curriculum.

The question of whether guidance and counseling is a curricular, extra-curricular or non-curricular function is one rarely discussed by teachers or school administrators. Seemingly, they are either disinterested in this topic or see it largely as a problem for the guidance and counseling profession to debate. Besides, recent years have seen few guidance and counseling incursions into either curricular or extra-curricular activities. As a consequence, why should teachers and administrators entertain any doubts as to the status of guidance and counseling as anything but a non-curricular function?

Regardless of whether guidance and counseling is construed as a curricular or non-curricular function, the present organization of guidance and counseling within the structure of education obstructs any significant curricular involvement by school counselors at the secondary school level. On surface, this may appear self-evident by simply surveying counselor time usage and work activities and noting the lack of direct curricular involvement. However, a closer scrutiny reveals a perspective and outlook on the part of many school counselors that is antithetical to any significant commitment to change. This perspective is one of a service approach by school counselors to intended school audiences that by its very own nature severely limits receptivity to alternative interventions.

A guidance and counseling service approach is comprised of discrete skills and functions performed by school counselors and available to students by need or on demand. The term skills in this context refers to individual competencies of school counselors used in achieving guidance outcomes. Examples of skills would include individual and group counseling, student appraisal and diagnosis, achievement and intelligence testing, and so on. Guidance and counseling functions differ from skills in that they are activities engaged in by school counselors to achieve overall objectives. Functions describe guidance and counseling operationally and traditionally include such activities as the orientation of new students, placement, testing, educational advisement, evaluation, career guidance, and so on. Collectively, the skills of counselors and the functions they perform are the services of guidance and counseling.

In contrast to a service approach is a programmatic position. A programmatic approach contains the essential ingredients of a service orientation, namely skills and functions, but does not view these as randomly dispensable commodities or services. Instead of focusing on problem situations or the daily need systems of consumers, a programmatic position organizes functions and skills according to carefully planned short and long-range objectives intended to deliberately and systematically influence students for guidance outcomes.

Programs of guidance and counseling, by virtue of containing identifiable elements to be intentionally imparted to students for guidance ends, must have a rationale for inclusion in the structure and organization of schools. By distinction, service approaches can justify inclusion solely on grounds of support for the existing system. For example, in a service approach, individual counseling on matters related to course selection is readily acceptable as supportive of curriculum and teaching in schools. However, if a credit course on decision-making were made available by counselors to all junior or senior high school students as an alternative to individual counseling or course selection, the existing system would be seriously challenged. This would occur because unlike a service approach which is adjustive to the current situation, a programmatic approach would seek institutional accommodations because of the need for time, space and staffing allocations for on-going programs.

Time is a most critical factor in differentiating between programs and services of guidance and counseling. A service approach views time as primarily an institutional given for the attainment of instructional goals unrelated to the objectives of guidance and counseling. This is accepted by a service approach because it lacks a series of planned and sequential experiences for students requiring time segments similar to the other academic disciplines. It also views curricular/instructional goals as a higher order priority than guidance and counseling objectives. A service approach therefore has no recourse but to constantly adjust to what the school curriculum and structure dictate because it fails to organize its functions and skills in a programmatic fashion in harmony with basic educational outcomes.

Programs of guidance and counseling take at least two forms. One form involves content programs quite similar to offerings in other curricular areas. The second form consists of an organized constallation of skills and functions requiring a series of time segments and open avenues for student accessibility.

As an example of this latter form of a preventive guidance and counseling program, consider an inner-city high school attempting to comply with integration of white and minority students through busing. The school counselors in this school decide to plan a series of student group counseling sessions involving white and minority students over the course of an entire semester. Those counselors participating bring with them skills in individual and group counseling. In addition, the guidance functions of orientation and group guidance are brought into play as a legitimate rationale for the program. The combination of counselor skills and legitimate guidance functions unite to formulate a constructive program necessitating discrete time segments, space allocations, clearly stated goals, staffing patterns, organizational accommodations and administrative sanction. Clearly, the skills and functions of guidance and counseling went well beyond a usual service approach because they were initially viewed as capable

capable of initiating a series of meaningful learning experiences for students if so organized.

The second form guidance and counseling programs exhibit is quite similar to programs in the various school disciplines. This form includes subject-matter, content and process elements organized and arranged in a formal scope and sequence. Content-centered programs of guidance and counseling first appeared in the early years of the vocational guidance movement. These programs later submerged with the new emphasis in the 1950's on counseling psychology (Super 1950). However, in submerging, vocational guidance did not disappear as a course offering in the public schools. Instead, the lack of interest by guidance personnel in many instances led others to pursue this area (Hoppock and Stevens 1954; Lowenstein and Hoppock 1953; Mezzano 1969; Sinick, Gorman and Hoppock 1966).

Today, there is an awakened interest in programs of guidance and counseling combining elements of both process and content. This is evidenced both in the tremendous increase in commercially produced programs and curricula related to guidance and affective education as well as in university content and curricular programs. State departments of education (see for example the numerous publications by the Minnesota State Department of Education in development education vis-a-vis guidance) have also shown increased interest in this area.

Programs of guidance and counseling centering on content or combinations of process and knowledge, as well as programs revolving around a constellation of skills and functions, require discrete time segments and student accessibility for successful implementation. Each of these types of programs are also organized and formulated with a view toward either the prevention of previously anticipated student problems or the enhancement of normal developmental processes. Also, the majority of guidance and counseling programs are organized with a group or classroom focus and not a one-on-one point of entry. Finally, both types of guidance and counseling programs eschew the notion that time is the essential province of teachers or the established curriculum. Instead, time within the context of schooling is viewed as flexible, negotiable, responsive and existent for the continuous development of legitimate programs for students.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Irrespective of whether the guidance and counseling profession decides to abandon or modify a service-centered approach and move into systematic program development, a number of major steps need to be undertaken in clarifying the relationship between guidance and counseling and the school curriculum.

Recommendation One

An extensive study should be undertaken to examine those stated curricular objectives of all existing school disciplines that are in concert with the objectives of guidance and counseling. The purpose of this study would be threefold. First, to set up a process for identifying and matching up compatible existing subject-matter goals with those of guidance and counseling. Two, to begin a dialogue between school counselors and teachers of subjects with aims harmonious with guidance outcomes in order to determine how these individuals might work together toward common ends. Three, the development and implementation of pilot programs involving cooperative ventures of counselors and teachers in achieving mutually agreed upon goals.

Recommendation Two

The identification of major objectives stated by the guidance and counseling profession that might better be achieved through the school curriculum than by traditional counselor practices. The attainment of this recommendation would require at least five steps. First, the identification of a limited number of major guidance and counseling objectives. Second, a recognition and examination of the various non-curricular means now employed by counselors to attain their major objectives. Third, the development of curricular components/programs designed to achieve these major ends. Four, the implementation and evaluation of these curricular components/programs. Five, a careful examination and comparisons of results obtained by traditional practices with those obtained by curricular components/programs.

Recommendation Three

The quasi-administrative roles of school counselors in relation to curricular advising, testing, scheduling, clerical responsibilities and placement must be carefully examined and evaluated. The purpose of this study would be fourfold, One, to ascertain how much counselor time is currently being expended in work supportive of curriculum and instruction. Two, the nature of the work counselors now engage in in support of curriculum and instruction. Three, the appropriateness of counselor time and expertise being spent in this area. Four, alternative means whereby counselors can be freed of many mundane and low-level tasks supportive of curriculum and instruction.

Recommendation Four

A survey be conducted of counselor preparation institutions and inservice training efforts conducted by schools and agencies to determine if counselors are being adequately educated regarding curricular knowledge and practices. This survey would explore counselors knowledgeability of both curricular options related to the field of guidance and counseling as well as curricular information of potential assistance to students, teachers and parents of students. This survey could be conducted by counselor organizations, state department of education officials or an outside agency. Conceivably, a neutral and knowledgeable organization such as the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development might be engaged for this purpose.

Recommendation Five

A vehicle or set of procedures be developed by members of the guidance and counseling profession to enable them to deal effectively with teachers and administrators in regard to legitimate student complaints about school curriculum. This vehicle or set of procedures would consider such residual problems as confidentiality, student rights, counselors conflict between institutional loyalties and student advocacy, lack of counselor power/authority in school structure, scheduling responsibilities of counselors, teacher resistance, and so on. In essence, clarification and guidelines are requested to aid counselors in acting upon a great deal of information gained through student contact of weaknesses and inadequacies in school curriculum.

Recommendation Six

That counselors work closely together with curricular specialists to assist one another when curricular and/or guidance and counseling objectives are hindered or subverted by school structure and organization. Further, that in concert counselors and curricular specialists develop strategies and tactics to overcome obstacles and rigidities in school structure and organization impeding legitimate outcomes for students. In so doing, counselors and curricular specialists realize that structural and organizational improvements in schools may frequently bring about desired student behaviors just as validly as curricular or guidance measures.

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Professional Development and Competency

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We counselors and counselor educators have spent thousands of hours and millions of pages in continuing and detailed examination of who we are, where we've been, what we do, how we do it, what we say, where we stand as a profession, and what we stand for. Being the self-depreciating beasts that we are, most of our remarks are critical and focus on what's wrong and ain't it awful. When we speak of professional development, we identify gaps and inconsistencies and inadequacies. Mulling over and pondering all these issues is essential for an emerging profession, especially one that mushroomed and spread without extensive forethought and planning. But we have emerged. The present furor over licensing and certification would testify to the fact that we are a profession. This article, then, is written from those two assumptions, and it is intended for professionals, for persons trained in, or who train persons for, helping others.

Let us begin with a definition. Professional development includes all those pre-service experiences provided for counselors by training institutions. It also includes in-service programs, attendance at conferences, and membership in professional organizations. It rarely has been construed to mean renewal, especially self-renewal, the idea that counselors must be involved in a continuing process of updating existing competencies and acquiring new ones if they are to be significant force in education — indeed, if they are to survive. Even more. That counselors must take responsibility for their own renewal, must grow and change because they want to, must be motivated to achieve a standard of excellence, and must feel a sense of urgency and excitement in the doing. That is what this paper is about.

An organized program of counselor self-renewal has two elements. The first requires that counselors update and streamline their present knowledge and skills, making certain that what they do now they do well — new twists, new ideas, new wrinkles in old approaches. The second element requires counselors to acquire techniques they never had before, to become more versatile, more resourceful, more able to anticipate and deal with what lies ahead. Beyond these, renewal in its generic sense demands that training institutions and employing agencies actively support counselors in these efforts, that they create a climate which will nurture counselor professional development and self-renewal. Obtaining funding for guidance, extending guidance into new and emerging areas of social need, increasing legislative support for counseling services, responding effectively to the expanding public mandate for comprehensive counseling services — even the survival of guidance itself — all are dependent upon counselors, counselor educators, employers, and policy makers striving together to achieve, maintain, and enhance professional counselor excellence.

The following recommendations represent some high priority action steps. They relate to needed initiatives outlined by the American Personnel and Guidance Association, the Office of Education, the National Institute of Education, local guidance programs, and counselors themselves. We do not expect, nor even want, total agreement, for positive change most often occurs from a sharing of perceptions and a rethinking of one's personal stance. What we are attempting to do in presenting these recommendations is to focus not on where we've been but on where we're going, not on what we do but on what we can do, not on where we now stand but on standards we might wish to embrace in the future. We believe that the ideas have import for training institutions, for schools, for professional associations, for information systems, for state supervisors of guidance, for researchers — but most important of all, for counselors, in what we hope is their never-ending quest for renewal.

1. Counselors at all levels and in all settings must adopt a futuristic orientation in planning and decision-making.

Is it true that most present in-service programs are designed around current needs and concerns?

Is it viable to prepare now for needs that are only just emerging?

Are we expending the major share of our efforts on immediate crises and problems?

We believe that "To be forewarned is to be forearmed" is the name of the game, that to prepare today for tomorrow's needs is an absolute must for self-renewing professionals and for a responsible profession. In order to do this, we must develop an early-warning capability which will help us to anticipate major social conditions and events. Then, using the best brains among us, we can develop alternative scenarios or potential responses which counselors can use to deal with emerging concerns. A review of programs in professional journals reveals an overwhelming orientation for immediate crises. While it is understandable and necessary that we deal with urgent problems, we must not allow them to divert our attention from developments that have long-lasting and far-reaching consequences. To the extent that counselors can adopt a futuristic outlook and orientation, they will be able to vitalize their efforts to acquire new skills and knowledge in advance of need and be prepared to act from strength.

It would be highly beneficial if APGA would assume leadership in this futuristic stance, giving emphasis to developing alternative scenarios as part of their planning. In this approach each future event would be seen as occurring in a variety of potential situations, and varying responses could be designed that would be appropriate for each. For example, an early warning network would have helped us to prepare for student activism and drug abuse in schools. Can we begin now to develop scenarios about school violence and packaged guidance services? The future can never really be known, but thinking broadly about it and imagining several possible outcomes will help counselors become equipped with a variety of strategies. Being successful in this futuristic gearing-up may then lead to counselors who are concerned about and engaged in a continuing process of self-renewal. Self-renewing counselors may very well find that they are able to do what they have always aspired to do but have fallen short of — that is, to be proactive, developmental, and anticipating rather than reactive and responding.

2. Consortia should be established to facilitate the adoption and utilization of resources for counselor professional development and renewal.

Are resources for staff development and training unique to the work setting?

From where does the money come to support the formation and operation of a Consortium?

Who's responsible?

Recent years have seen a proliferation of new practice and program resources which have increased considerably the range of choices for counselors. If counselors are to be in the position to utilize the best of these materials, there must be a major thrust to disseminate knowledge about their availability and to provide direct assistance in how to adopt and utilize them. Both formal, funded, and informal counselor educator and school system consorita should be established which play a major role in the adoption and utilization process. Recently the Office of Education funded a program for the development and dissemination of competency-based staff development training materials that involved a consortium of counselor education programs and State Departments in California, Florida, Maryland, Michigan, and Washington, in conjunction with the American Institutes for Research. It is a good example of a national, organized effort to acquaint counselors with the availability of staff development resources in critical areas of need and to provide direct assistance to them in acquiring operational skills.

3. Greater emphasis must be given to the development of targeted, skill-building training materials.

Can skill-building materials be developed that counselors can use working by themselves?

Can we rely on counselors to pursue their own competency-building?

Is it really possible to create resources that will enhance skills?

We think so.

Much of the material presently available to counselors is discussive and informational, and emphasizes awareness and identification of needs and concerns. Because of its brevity, or its length, the way in which it is presented, and the form in which it is packaged, it does relatively little to assist counselors to upgrade competencies and skills. As counselor renewal gains momentum, it will be important to emphasize the development of self-contained instructional materials that teach specific skills and that can be used either by individuals or by small groups of counselors. Materials of this type are difficult to design and even more difficult to produce.

Therefore, both state and Federal groups should take the leadership in funding the development of these resources. Then materials should be constructed in such a way that they lend themselves to use in professional association workshops, in counselor education pre- and post-service programs, in in-service training experiences, and by individual counselors pursuing their own self-renewal. They also might well become the basis of a series of workshops offered through APGA and/or in conjunction with state guidance conventions and regional meetings.

4. A major thrust should be initiated to support release time and funding for counselor self-renewal efforts.

Do counselors really have a voice in deciding how they spend their time?

Is the burden on the counselor to pursue self-renewal after hours?

How can the need for counselor self-renewal be communicated to school decision-makers?

The demands on counselors are almost limitless in terms of where they can and should be helpful. While many of these demands may be unrealistic, it is nonetheless true that counselors could handle them more effectively if they were adequately prepared through an ongoing renewal program.

The major brunt of the self-renewal effort, however, should not be put upon the shoulders of individual counselors. If counselor self-renewal is going to be an after-five and all-day-Sunday affairs, then it is unlikely that it will ever amount to very much. As is true in other professions (medicine, law, engineering) counselors should have time and financial support for self-development and renewal built into their work role. To a large extent the real commitment of an institution to delivery of effective guidance services is shown by its willingness to provide both of these. In order to encourage local initiative in developing such system support for counselor renewal, we must actively publicize the need and develop model counselor role statements that speak to its importance. Special funding programs such as Title III-D should include reference to the specific use of funds for counselor self-renewal programs. If a clearly developed program of counselor self-renewal was available, state departments and local systems would not have to spend so much time and money in developing materials and could devote effort and support to the actual training and learning experiences for counselors.

5. Pre-service and in-service training programs should premium upon helping counselors to develop an attitude of excellence and motivation toward high achievement in their performance, to internalize the need for life-long learning and continuing self-development and renewal.

Is fulfilling the requirements to become a counselor the end-all?

Can training institutions be influential in instilling an inquiring attitude in their students?

What can be done about long-tenured counselors who see no need to acquire new competencies?

In our erstwhile efforts to encourage all counselors to become certified, we may have communicated the idea that the education of the counselor *was completed upon fulfillment of requirements* for the basic credential. Unlike some professionals, who expect that they will be involved in continued supervision and continuing education experiences after the initial credentialing, counselors have not traditionally regarded education beyond the Master's Degree as something necessary to themselves, either personally or professionally. While this attitude may reflect the inadequacy of available resources and training opportunities, it nonetheless serves to fixate counselors at the level of skill and orientation resulting from their initial preparation programs. It would seem extremely important that all counselors be instilled with an aggressive desire to obtain new knowledge and skills and that they exert an organized press upon their training institutions and professional associations for viable upgrading and renewal opportunities. We believe that professional associations and institutions can do much to encourage an attitude of continual growth and learning on the part of counselors. Ultimately, however, continuing efforts toward counselor self-renewal will depend upon the counselors' own desire for it and their personal ability to benefit from it. Counselor self-renewal is really the responsibility of each individual counselor, but the seeds for its important should be planted during the initial counselor education experiences.

6. The means and methods of obtaining counselor competencies must become more easily accessible and must respond clearly to individual needs and concerns.

Can renewal resources be designed so that users can begin at their own level of skill-development?

How can state- or Federally-developed materials be made available to Small City, U.S.A.?

Any effective program of counselor self-renewal must be oriented toward the needs of individuals. Therefore, a greater pluralism in training opportunities must be provided. In particular, our differentiated staffing approaches produce a wide range of counselor needs that require highly-targeted resources. Counselors who have served in other professions have joined our ranks, and they have special kinds of concerns. Minority persons and other counselors who have had different cultural experiences made it imperative that we have materials and approaches suitable to a variety of learning styles. Because the school counselor population at the present time seems to change through replacement of staff rather than through increases in staff, it is crucial that we attend to the in-service and continuing education of present counselors. While counselor education institutions must always be on the alert for new areas demanding the pre-service preparation of counselors, we believe that APGA, state departments, and local guidance groups should give increasing recognition and support to training opportunities for presently employed and active school counselors.

Another point: We'd like to suggest that decisions regarding how and when the training will occur increasingly become the decision of the trainees rather than the trainer. If counselors are to take responsibility for their own renewal, they must not only be allowed but must also be encouraged to do just that. Employing and educational organizations can help by publicizing the availability of materials and programs and then support counselors in their efforts to procure and use them. For counselors to plan and manage their self-renewal is for counselors to become involved in, committed to, and enthusiastic about the process. And that, as we have stressed, is the ultimate goal of a self-renewal program.

7. APGA should sponsor an ongoing Commission on Counselor Renewal that is in active communication and collaboration with all APGA divisions.

What should such a Commission do?
Why would it be important?
How could it help local institutions?

The first APGA Commission on Counselor Renewal was established by Thelma Daley during her tenure as President. Continuing its work under President Gazda, the Commission helped to define the need and develop guidelines for counselor renewal programs. With those initial organizational, planning, and conceptual steps now accomplished, the Commission could act in several ways to vitalize counselor self-renewal.

First, the Commission could acquaint divisional officers and leadership personnel with the importance of and the need to provide for renewal in programming and planning. Second, it could regularly undertake a needs/wants assessment to identify priority areas for specific upgrading and renewal training. Third, it could provide technical assistance to national, state, and local groups desiring to establish counselor renewal programs. The Commission could be particularly helpful in providing information to such groups about how to establish renewal programs as well as about the availability of resources pertinent to their needs.

While the work of this Commission might prove to be most useful to national and state guidance groups, its influence could extend to the local level as well. A cadre of individuals could be trained in numbers of field programs, and their expertise and availability publicized locally. Then, operating on our premise that counselors pursue their own self-renewal, it would be up to individuals and local guidance departments to take advantage of the opportunity for growth.

The greatest contribution of the Commission would occur through its establishment on a regular ongoing basis. The acknowledged commitment that would be given to counselor renewal by the establishment of a permanent Commission on Counselor Renewal would serve to vitalize this critical issue and heighten awareness of its importance in all APGA members.

8. Counselors must redefine their role to include change agentry as a major priority.

Is the role of change agent antithetical to appropriate counselor behavior?
How much responsibility does the counselor have in the school anyway?
Is change agentry reserved for administrators?
What kinds of skills are needed to become a change agent?

Counselors traditionally have delivered a specified body of services for which they have been intensively prepared. Few counselors have been trained or perceive themselves as having a major role in changing the institutions in which they work. Yet it appears that if counselors are to be able to cope with societal changes and with the changing needs of their student clients, then they must assume an active role in the change process. Only by taking leadership in bringing about change in their work settings will it be possible for them to respond to these new demands for their services and skills.

It is unrealistic and deplorably passive to expect that others will always have insight as to the particular services that counselors can and should provide. Counselors themselves must take the initiative in helping their institutions to define their roles in line with current and emerging needs and concerns. To do this will require that counselors perceive themselves as change agents and acquire specific training in change agent strategies and skills.

9. A regular program should be developed that brings counselor educators together to share both their experiences and resources which they have found to be effective in promoting counselor professional development and renewal.

What do counselor educators need to share — their ignorance or their successes?

How can others, e.g., counselors, state department consultants, have viable input?

Do counselor educators really want to know what is needed?

Isn't it easier to teach what you know than what others want?

One of the most notable outcomes of the NDE Title IV-B Guidance and Counseling Training Institutes was the opportunity it provided for the counselor educators who directed the institutes to come together and discuss the needs of counselor trainees and the most effective ways of responding to them. In these directors' meetings there was an unusually high level of communication and interaction that contributed greatly to the quality of the training programs. Since the end of the funding for the Title IV-B programs there have been few opportunities for such interchanges among counselor educators. A major emphasis in future funding efforts of the Office of Education should be on providing ways and means for this counselor educator interchange to occur. Scheduling these kinds of programs on a regional basis and over a period of several years would be an excellent way to communicate ideas and strategies for enhancing counselor self-renewal and could lead to collaborative sharing that would greatly enhance the effectiveness of counselor in-service training.

The New Imperatives for Guidance workshop, developed collaboratively by the American Personnel and Guidance Association and the ERIC Counseling and Personnel Services Clearinghouse is an example of the benefits that can accrue from bringing together major leaders. This Conference, which was restricted to State Department of Guidance personnel and large-city guidance directors, provided the vehicle for opening up communication among these groups and the sharing of ideas and resources. A similar program could provide opportunities for counselor educators to meet with local school counselors, guidance directors, and State Department guidance personnel. High on the priority list of any new Office of Education initiatives would be to provide funding for such a meeting.

10. Regular means of sharing effective ideas and resources must be

developed to link counselors and to help them utilize the best of what is available.

Why can't counselors develop their own resources?

Is it important for counselors to learn what other counselors are doing?

Is information on new programs and practices disseminated effectively to counselors in the field?

School counselors today must devote time either to searching for ideas and/or materials to respond to student needs or to develop new resources when they are unable to find what they need. Frequently the problem is not that the materials and ideas do not exist but that a given counselor is unaware of them or doesn't know how to obtain them. Increasing efforts must be devoted to disseminating information about exemplary programs and practices, to helping counselors communicate with other counselors about approaches which have worked particularly well for them, and to creating ways for counselors to obtain and adapt resources of particular use to them.

An initial step in this direction, S^3 — The Systematic Sharing System, developed by the ERIC Counseling and Personnel Services Clearinghouse — utilizes the services of ERIC/CAPS to facilitate the interchange of resources among practicing counselors. Participants in S^3 will be regular recipients of descriptions of promising practices and programs which can be utilized by counselors in their own work settings and in their personal programs of self-renewal.

Another example of useful sharing and assistance is the Office of Education-supported Rural Communication Network, offered through the Rural and Small School Guidance Project conducted by the Ohio Vocational and Technical Center. This service is designed to aid rural isolated schools and includes a WATTS line which makes it possible for anyone anywhere to obtain information on any question of concern twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week. Information specialists either respond directly to the question or refer the caller to someone who can provide the needed information.

The foregoing examples indicate that efforts are underway to foster and improve communication among practicing counselors. For such systems or networks to be effective, counselors will need to contribute to them and use them. If they do, this will be one more way they can exhibit an increasing priority for self-renewal.

CONCLUSION

A national effort to enhance counselor professional development and self-renewal is not a protectionist device for counselor survival. It is a futuristically-oriented imperative for a profession that daily grows stronger. There should be no mistaking the challenges and demands that will be placed upon counselors. Uncommitted and clock-watching counselors may opt for the slumberous serenity of a professional backwater rather than the turbulent, rushing, white-water existence of renewal. And they will be in constant danger of extinction. Renewing counselors will be secure because of their capacity to change. They will be prepared for the changing needs of society and of their clients. They will know how to upgrade still-important old skills and will never cease the process of acquiring needed new ones.

Federal and state legislative bodies, counselor education institutions, employing agencies, professional associations, and guidance leaders at all levels carry responsibility for helping counselors in their efforts to become self-renewing. Counselors will need financial and psychological support, release time, and the opportunity to meet with and learn from other professionals. They will need training materials that are targeted to their needs, information on where to get them, and money to buy them.

Once the cushion of support has been established and the necessary resources are at hand, then the responsibility must shift to the counselors themselves. Counselors must know clearly that course credits, years of experience, number of degrees, even certification, are only means to desired outcomes, not ends to be cherished in their own right. The new, compleat counselor will be characterized by life-long learning, not perpetual preservation. Risk-taking will be relished over routine and redundancy, exciting innovations in daily performance prized over stationary standards. Monitoring the needs and aspirations of others, seeking out new ideas and resources, experimenting and trying out, adopting and adapting guidance innovations with confidence, inventing new approaches when necessary, never quite settling for the status quo, demanding of themselves the strength and skill continually to grow and change — such will be the hallmarks of the renewing counselor.

Perhaps the most essential element in the psychological makeup of renewing counselors is a striving for excellence in everything they do, coupled with a mindfulness of the need to change both the activity and the method. "Totally committed but only half sure" is an appropriate motto. Such a searching attitude fuels their growth, keeps them continually examining their goals and priorities, and helps them to be alert always for new and better ways of doing things. Counseling is a lively profession, and counselors are where the action is. True commitment to self-renewal will keep them there.

Facilitators and Barriers to the Practice of Guidance and Counseling

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OVERVIEW

Historical Perspective

During the transition of this country from an agrarian to an industrial society in the late 19th and early 20th century, an influential infant named the "guidance movement" was born. Assisting in the delivery of this child were such concerned individuals as Frank Parsons (Choosing a Vocation, 1909), engineer, common laborer, educator, lawyer, social worker; Meyer Bloomfield, whose early research on guidance needs in schools (School and the Start in Life, 1914) cited many of the career guidance needs of the nation's youth. He also compiled, in 1915, the significant vocational guidance writings of that time; John Brewer, whose research helped to identify the conditions which led to the establishment of the "vocational guidance movement": 1) the new division of labor, 2) the growth of technology, 3) the extension of vocational education, and 4) the spread of modern forms of democracy. Parsons, Bloomfield and Brewer, incidentally, shared in a particular and special "vocational" function of great impact to vocational guidance. Parsons was the first, Bloomfield the third and Brewer a later Director of the Vocation Bureau.

The early years of the guidance movement were controlled and directed by many of the leading social workers of that time. However, beginning in the 1920's, and influenced even more in later years, were the contributions and research of such educators as Richard Allen, President, in 1930, of the National Vocational Guidance Association, the organization which preceded the American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA), now the voice of all professionally concerned individuals in the fields of guidance and counseling in this country. Allen, in his presidential address, spoke of "the conquest of our Association by educators" in 1930.

Subsequent to the first World War to the end of the second World War, a strong emphasis was placed on testing as an integral part of the guidance movement. Harry Kitson, renowned pioneer in the field, criticized the popular notion that guidance was becoming a "pigeonholer" of individuals into jobs for which they were "cut out" and the hope that tests would accomplish this purpose. He contended that guidance should be "monitory" in nature, suggesting to the person being tested what his or her strengths and weaknesses may be, in order to be able to make better and more effective decisions about his or her life.

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The foregoing has concentrated rather deliberately on the "vocational" aspect of guidance; perhaps to the apparent oversight of the clinical, psycho-socio-emotional and the personal development impact. This was intentional, since the vocational guidance movement indeed dominated guidance in the schools for the first half of this century. However, Wrenn pointed out in 1951 that "two broad trends in personal assistance are characterizing this century, those of vocational guidance and psychotherapy." In 1950, Hoppock noted that a different approach to counseling — the non-directive or client-centered approach was beginning to be emphasized and the foundation of the earlier vocational guidance movement was beginning to crumble. Hoppock's statement may, on fact, have been somewhat harsh. Perhaps a more accurate observation might be that the 25 plus years following 1950 have seen a refinement of the two approaches and that in the late 1970's the research of the 1960's and this decade have led to the most optimum use of both and other theories applied by adequately trained school counselors in appropriate counseling situations.

Federal Assistance

The impact of Federal assistance has further influenced the guidance movement in the second half of the 20th century, beginning with the National Defense Education Act of 1958. Prior to that year, practical attempts had been made by the Federal Government to deal with mass unemployment by the establishment of the Civilian Conservation Corps (1933) and the National Youth Administration (1936-1943). In a time of national depression, these two agencies provided desperately needed jobs to the youth of this country. From Bloomfield's 1914 study on the guidance needs of youth, until 1958, when NDEA was passed, little attention was paid to the training of persons to provide the necessary guidance and counseling functions. The six-year old American Personnel and Guidance Association, along with the newly formed Guidance and Personnel Services section of the United States Office of Education, under the directorship of Frank L. Sievers, expressed concern over the lack of leadership, support and commitment to adequate training of guidance personnel in this country. These two groups were influential in implementing the passage of NDEA, Part B, Title V, which authorized a total appropriation of $30,000,000 over a four-year period to train individuals to adequately serve the guidance and counseling needs of students in our nation's schools. It is a rare high school in the country today which does not employ, even 15 years later, at least one or two counselors who received NDEA training.

The last significant impact by the Federal Government for training personnel to attend to the critical counseling needs of boys and girls in this country was a sub-part of the Education Professions Development Act, in 1970-71, the final utilization of funds having been depleted by 1975.

In deference to the many local education agencies (LEA's), school districts, county offices and state departments of education (SEA's), the financial burden engendered by hiring all of the personnel trained by NDEA and EPDA fell into their already strained budget plans. However, school and state department officials, with the assistance of material, supplies and program funds enabled by a part of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) through 1975, recognized the need for these personnel to serve students' guidance needs. These LEA's and SEA's continue today to allow the straining of the local and state taxpayers' dollar (the main source of funding in a majority of the nation's schools) to provide the services of guidance and counseling.

Guidance and Counseling at Crossroads

Shaw (1973) appropriately calls guidance and counseling a "third force in education". He cites teaching as the first and administration as the second. Because the "force" of guidance was incorporated considerably after the first two had established meaningful identities, guidance has had difficulty in establishing "itself" as a discrete force in the educational setting.

Perhaps this is a simple way of saying that a timely accounting may now be necessary. There is no doubt that American taxpayers are demanding increased explainable results from the stewardships served by American educators. The entire spectrum called guidance and counseling in schools, and the personnel who comprise its work force must stand back and look at the content and process of this vital component in American education and emerge victorious and decidedly accountable. Accentuating the facilitators of the practice of guidance in our school systems and eliminating whatever barriers may exist will result in both valuable assistance to students with the critical decision-making aspects of their lives and optimum utilization of the taxpayers' dollar, producing measurable outcomes.

DISCUSSION

Facilitators

1. Supplemental Financial Aid by States and Federal Government

Cited earlier, one of the most significant, positive contributions to the guidance movement in our nation's schools has been the past financial faith implied by the passage of NDEA, parts of EPDA and ESEA. While legislators at both the state and national level continue to recognize the need for financial relief to the taxpayer, the vital needs in the areas of career development, in a shrinking job market, decision making in a demanding and competitive world for our young people could allow the need for increased financial aid to "fall through the cracks".

2. Community and Parental Support

With the divorce rate in the country soaring out of proportion with marriage ceremonies performed, it is singularly enlightening to observe increasing numbers of parents and representatives of community agencies actively behind and supportive of school guidance programs. The overwhelming encouragement of local organized parent groups toward the incorporation and even mandate of guidance services on a global basis for elementary school children attests to their recognition of the complex developmental needs of childhood, needs that parents alone cannot serve. They seek, in louder and clearer voices, more help in meeting the preventive and developmental concerns in children's lives. They are, as individuals and groups, serving in advisory and assistance capacities to school guidance programs. Their assistance is both valuable and appreciated by teachers, counselors and school administrators.

3. Advisory Councils

Comprised of business people, parents, school administrators, senior citizens, students and school board representatives, these individuals are directly responsible for the broadening and deepening of guidance services to students. Their composition usually follows a well-developed "guidance needs assessment" whereby guidance staff attempt to survey the entire spectrum of the community in serving the children in schools. Only by this global approach can the guidance services meet the needs of a maximum number of students. The Advisory Councils can further assist school guidance staffs in meeting their goal of accountability to the community.

4. Competency-Based Counselor Training Programs

Research with counselor effectiveness through the years has been continued by the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES) and the American School Counselors Association (ASCA), two divisions of the American Personnel and Guidance Association. A singular conclusion emerges: Counselors cannot be "all things to all people". Yet, over the developmental years of guidance program planning, little had been accomplished in the area of systematic analysis of needs. The above-cited needs assessments are beginning to determine the training criteria for school counselors. As the nation's job market continues to shrink, counselors are being trained to assist students into such employment in diversified fields. Counselors are not graduating from training programs with Master's Degrees or Certificates of Attainment until they have proven to a group of professionals, usually supervisors and peers, that they are indeed capable of facilitating the emotional/social/personal and career development needs of the students for whom they will be accountable.

5. Public Recognition of Developmental and Preventive Guidance Programs at Elementary School Level

How often has this accusation been leveled at those responsible for guidance in the United States — "You put the cart before the horse". Guidance needs to begin as early as the first grade. And so, the supporters of human growth and development are recognizing that, indeed, we can prevent many of the later problems that assail students, parents and communities by responsible developmental guidance with the cooperation of parents in the child's early years. The states of Florida, Oregon and most recently, Nevada have assumed leadership in this direction. APGA has provided national impetus by encouraging the introduction of a global mandate, through Federal intervention, for elementary guidance and counseling services nationwide. The incorporation of counselors at the elementary school level may indeed result in the decreased need of curative and remedial guidance services at the secondary school level, or at best, allow those guidance specialists to direct their attention in more positive facilitative services to high school students.

6. Improved Career Development Counseling at all School Levels

The impact with which career education has been introduced in this country in the last ten years has been afforded positive impetus by guidance and counseling. The present attitude of the National Vocational Guidance

Association (NVGA) is to encourage career counseling "from the cradle to the grave". The "Oregon Way" as founded by a past State Superintendent, Dale Parnell, leads the way in the critical mandate that education must provide the understanding, appreciation and opportunity for every individual to adequately understand self, interests, aptitudes, needs and abilities in order to make wise career decisions at any necessary time in life. The most significant impact created by the "Oregon Way" has been the acceptance of change in the lives of America's men and women. No one can truly predict the future in terms of America's job needs, as stated in the "Vast Army of the Underemployed" by O'Toole (1975), who predicts that, by 1980, 80% of the jobs in this country will not require a college education. If true, this lays a weighty responsibility on the nation's guidance counselors, who should be continually cognizant of the work needs of the community, their state and their nation, in order to assist their students to make wise and satisfying career decisions. Beginning with self-understanding and healthy self-concept development at the elementary school, through job application or higher education planning at the secondary school, the counselor is more aware and gaining in understanding of the partnership between their students' contributions and the existent opportunities in the world of work.

7. Consultant Role of Counselor

As the knowledge explosion in this country expands to demand increased subject matter knowledge for all teachers, understanding of child growth and development needs take a "back seat" in teacher training. Enter the child development specialist and the guidance counselor, who supplement the teacher's knowledge and practice in this critical area. The demand for cognitive goals and objectives (Bloom, 1956) for the education of children, decreases the opportunity in the classroom for affective goals (Bloom, Krathwohl, Masia, 1964). Well-trained and respected counselors are increasingly providing in-service education to teachers and parents to enhance the understanding of both of the complex needs of children and youth to develop and maintain healthy self-concepts in order to ultimately emerge as well-adjusted members of an equally complex society.

8. Counselor as Student Advocate

With the passage of the Family Rights and Privacy Act of 1974, familiarly known as the Buckley Amendment, and the increasing incidence of child abuse in our country, most counselors are finding themselves increasingly the prime advocate of the rights of their students. That a national mandate should be necessary to protect children's rights is moot testimony to a growing problem, the exploitation of a defenseless segment of our society, our children. Counselors are providing concerned, but objective evidence on behalf of students and are being recognized by the legal scions of America as a formidable force to be dealt with before decisions can be made affecting children who do not possess either the size, age, wisdom or duplicity to speak for themselves.

Barriers

1. Equitable Funding for Equitable Services

While guidance and counseling services have been considered by a majority of the nation's school districts as necessary and essential to the total educational program, a smaller, but equally important number of poorer school districts are unable to provide the financial resources for these services that may be even more critical to their students. To the present time, the Federal Government has been the only agency, or combination of agencies, which has served as "leveling" sources of equity in this country. The least which might be done could be to mandate that these services, through local and state, with reasonable Federal supplement, would be available to all students seeking them.

2. Counselor Inability to a) Recognize Skill Limitations, b) Accept Change and c) Continue to Develop Their Own Education

a. "Counselors are their own worst enemies". This has almost become a truism in our educational spheres. While this adage does not affect the majority of professionals in the field, it only takes "one rotten apple to spoil the barrel". Some of the individuals who were trained under NDEA are unfortunately still functioning in our nation's schools, having indulged in no further training. Some counselors were hired at that critical late 50's and early 60's, with no formal guidance training, under a "grandfather" clause (allowed to perform a critical "new" function in education, because of emergency needs and no trained personnel available, who were certified by State requirements, as teachers before the training mandate deadline). Obviously, one might expect those individuals to seek training, but too many of them were too comfortably in their roles and not sufficiently positively reinforced to continue their skill training on their own initiative.

b. The second problem is an outgrowth of the first. Those who were (are) not motivated to seek further skill or knowledge development in a changing world, categorically refuse to accept or to recognize that there is change in our world. "Students are the same in every generation, only the clothing styles change" is their favorite "out". Citing the drug abuse problem, alcohol addiction, family breakups, new life styles, changing job market to these individuals falls on deaf ears. They create depression and severe frustration among the "new" generation of well-trained, enthusiastic, legally certified and dedicated counselors, a frustration and depression which, in time, can impose less than adequate service on young people and may cause these professional individuals to leave an otherwise rewarding career.

c. This third phase of the problem is related to the first two, in that some counselors appear to believe that when they are certified or receive a Master's Degree in counseling, they can call a halt to their professional training. To state that this is unfair to their young clients is an understatement. Our elementary and secondary school students deserve the best teachers, administrators and certainly counselors. Yet only a small percentage of school counselors in this country belong to their professional organization, the American School Counselors Association (ASCA), or undertake the cost of attending national, state or even local professional development workshops or in-service training programs. Administrators and school board members need to pay more attention to the continued training of their staff members, in order to ensure that their children are receiving the best counseling possible.

The other side of the coin is the number of non-certified counselors still serving in our nation's schools. This is totally unnecessary because there are sufficient numbers of qualified and certified counselors available, and the early 60's emergency needs no longer exist. Admittedly, certification in no way guarantees qualification, but it is highly unlikely that an individual can be qualified without having passed through the necessary steps to certification.

Finally, related to this problem, the school counselor must get out of his or her "safety box" of an office and into the area where students live: classrooms, lounges and hallways. The counselor needs to be involved in "outreach" programs to reach the student who truly needs guidance and counseling, but is afraid to ask.

3. Administrator and Faculty Perception of Counselor Image

This concern is, incidentally, related to the one above, in that counselors must recognize the need to let others know what it is that they do. The American School Counselor Association (ASCA) has a thoroughly developed program available to improve the image of the counselor by other staff members. However, too few school counselors know of this program, since only a small percentage of them take advantage of membership. If counselors are not viewed by principals and teachers as an integral part of the school staff, only counselors can provide the remedy.

4. Counselor Accountability

"I'm so busy seeing kids and parents all day, I don't have time to write reports or newsletters". Without a well-developed systematic method of letting teachers, parents, principals, students and taxpayers know that what they are doing is worth the cost, there will be no kids and parents to see. There are many systematic approaches to counselor accountability available for counselors to subscribe to in order to prove their value to their constituents. Too few counselors are voluntarily utilizing these opportunities (Shaw, 1973; Hays, 1977).

5. Counselor Renewal through Professional Development Programs

Indirectly related to Number 2 above, while APGA and ASCA provide many professional development workshops for counselors in the field, they tend to reach the "wrong" audience, i.e., the dedicated professional members of these Associations who may not need the renewal opportunities as much as those who will not attend any in-service or graduate program which is not required of them. "Teeth" need to be given to certification and, if necessary, licensing programs that 1) mandate attendance in counselor renewal programs and 2) provide those programs on a local, state or regional level. The professional associations do not possess the financial basis necessary to reach those beyond their membership.

6. Collective Bargaining Agreements and Contracts

A controversial topic, at best, with numerous supporters pro and con, members of the counseling profession cannot provide their services or perform their helping roles while constricted by rigid legal agreements. One work of a professional is "to stay until the job is done". A school counselor must be allowed, encouraged and use the flexibility and freedom to stay until the job is done. For example, many parents work during the school day. They can only meet with school personnel (counselors) in the evening. Yet, many contractual agreements deny this opportunity to parents because of rigid hourly restrictions on counselors. The least that these agreements tend to do is to settle the always controversial question about whether or not education is a profession.

7. Need for Central Coordinating Agency

So far in the history of the "discipline" of guidance and counseling, there has been a guidance section in the United States Office of Education, large city supervisors of guidance, state pupil personnel services sections, county directors of guidance (usually a courtesy title, no real supervision involved) and school district directors of guidance (generally coordinative, pencil-pushing, non-personnel roles). None seem to be producing the quality services necessary and possible, if regulations toward counselor supervision were strengthened. Responsible almost totally to the school principal, who has many other important and time-consuming duties at his/her beck and call, the job responsibilities of the counselor at best are self-regulated and at worst "fall through the cracks" at considerable disservice in too many cases. When school administrators are conscientious about assigning counselor duties, they generally know very little about counseling, assign sub-administrative tasks and then live with counselor complaints that they are "blorified clerks". This is all too true. Counseling programs train counselors to counsel, not to be administrators, yet the counselor has no person or office to whom to turn when counseling tasks are usurped. A uniform, flexible, central coordinating agency is vital to the very survival of quality services to students, because, despite the list of barriers, students are being counseled, in the main, by the best trained, highly qualified individuals that this century has yet been able to produce.

8. Cooperative Efforts Needed Between Training Institution Personnel (Counselor Educators) and the Field (Counselors and Administrators)

The best qualified and well-trained counselors come from institutions whose training personnel (professors of counselor education) regularly interact with those school personnel who will hire their trainees. The significance of this problem is that it is practically non-existent. Exchange programs, where counselor educators take over the role of counselor supervisor or counselor, occasionally, and vice versa? Scoffed at recently, and often, not by those in the field, but the professors, much more work is needed to help the professors understand what is really needed in the schools.

One of the most widely heard comments from new counselors in the schools is "my professor never prepared me for anything like this!" Perhaps the central coordinating agency mentioned above might facilitate the cooperative planning of guidance and counseling preparation programs between counselor educators and counselor supervisors.

CONCLUSION

Indeed, the practice of guidance and counseling in our nation's schools is better than it has ever been. The facilitators point to this fact. Yet, there are significant barriers which may ultimately cause the demise of these vital services to students. We hear much these days about the "back to basics" movement. The eternal pendulum seems to be swinging in that direction. But, what many fail to recognize or appreciate is the 4th R — Relating. The counselor in the schools should be the most highly skilled person in teaching others the art of successful interpersonal communication, one of the most vital characteristics in our adult society. All the scientific and technical knowledge in the world will not provide happy adults able to live in harmony and peace with their fellow humans.

Implied, if not stated, among the barriers, is an increased funding source to provide the optimum services, programs and personnel in guidance and counseling worthy of our nation's most valuable resource, our children and youth. Attention must be focused on this need. As facilitators to the practice of guidance and counseling in our schools are strengthened and barriers are eliminated, counseling services afforded our nation's young people will reflect the quality and quantity necessary to meet the critical decision-making skills which they must have to serve present and future needs for their survival in a highly complex and increasingly competitive world. Guidance and counseling should be a life-long service. With more assistance in their development years, less life adjustment or career change needs may be encountered in later life.

"Really effective counseling is the keystone of the arch of a widespread educational system dedicated to the principle of equality of opportunity". James B. Conant, Education in a Divided World, 1948.

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Guidance and Counseling in Special Settings

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I. INTRODUCTION

Arthur Pearl (1966) has stated that the American educational system should have as its goals:

> ...to provide each student with a wide range of career choices, to provide each student with the competence and knowledge to function as citizens in a complicated democratic society, to develop culture carriers, to provide students with the requisite intrapersonal and interpersonal skills necessary to function in a complicated interdependent bureaucratically entrenched society (pp 1-2).

As modern society has become more complex, populous, urban and industrialized, the task of meeting these goals has become increasingly difficult and challenging. The desire has been expressed to see each student as a distinct individual who represents the hope of continued progress and the ideal American image. Flanagan (1962) professed, "...deep concern over the waste of human abilities, the efficiency of America's education in developing these abilities, and their later utilization for the good of the individual and our country" (p. 24). Because of this general type of thinking, the public school counselor emerged on the American scene. This very worthwhile addition to our educational set-up is usually thought to be an outgrowth of society's concern for the individual, but it actually stems from society's concern for society. The beginning movements of counseling were basically concerned with shaping the individual to fit into society. However, though the reasons be not all valid, counselors did emerge in our public schools and the tasks they are commissioned to undertake are most important for they are dealing with people, whom Henry Wriston (1960) refers to as "the basic natural resource of the United States" (p. 23).

The jobs a public school counselor must perform are numerous. Wrenn (1966) gives us some idea of the multitude of these tasks.

> ...currently responsible for the development of a school guidance program — bring to a student an increased understanding of the educational and vocational information essential to wise choices; utilizing psychological measurements and careful records for both teacher and counselor understanding on the one hand, and for interpretation of the student to himself on the other hand;

> health services for both physical and mental health needs; school social workers for providing adjustments where needed between home and school; school psychologists for assistance to teacher and student in learning tasks; assistance to the student in finding part-time and full-time jobs. . . (p. 2).

The above quote adds impetus to the importance of the public school counselor and the great volume of work and the multitude of tasks for which he is responsible. However, the settings in which counselors have traditionally worked have undergone a number of changes.

As guidance and counseling entered into the decade of the sixties, it seemed as though the profession was entering an era of providing guidance and counseling for all students. One of the major challenges of this time was the decision of whether to work exclusively with normal developmental concerns or to address those concerns of smaller and needier groups in the overall population. The goal to provide adequate guidance and counseling services for all was not met during the last decade. Consequently, the challenge still remains. The needs of students in the special settings must be addressed. Guidance and counseling professionals can and should play a more vital role in addressing the concerns and needs of those individuals.

The special settings which will be addressed include urban, rural, private/parochial, alternative, special and vocational education. The purpose of this paper is twofold. One, to provide insights into the current trends which prevail in the various settings and second, to provide recommendations which will enable members of the counseling professions to enhance the delivery of their services to individuals in these settings.

American institutions, particularly the schools, are guardians of American values, beliefs and attitudes. Overt and subtle pressures are used to coerce all groups to come within the boundaries of middle class accepted behavior. If this is the direction in which we will continue, counselors must play a vital role in the protection of the rights of students who must live, learn and grow in settings that are different from the controlling groups.

The urban settings have undergone many changing patterns since guidance and counseling came into being. There are data that indicate that discipline, crime, drugs, personal attacks, assaults and poor morals is an everyday occurrence in urban settings.

Fear, hopelessness and despair are the trade words of urban schools. Being poor and of color are problems within themselves. But, add fear, crime, drugs, discipline problems, and the lack of power and effective sponsorship and you have a setting with little hope for the future. Thus, you have a setting where teachers have become dissatisfied with themselves, students dissatisfied with teachers, parents confused and concerned, and the public dissatisfied with it all. All of this has taken place in a very short period; a period in which counselors played a little or no role in helping to shape the direction of urban or rural education. The lack of their input is greatly felt by all Americans.

II. SALIENT ISSUES

It was mentioned earlier that modern society has become more complex, populous, urban, and industrialized. Thus the urban environment poses many challenges. In A Systemic Approach to Counseling, Gunnings (1976) states that the environment is the key factor in shaping man's attitudes, values, and beliefs. Individuals in urban areas usually lack any real source of power, i.e., their lives are controlled by the environment in which they live. This often leads to feelings of hopelessness and helplessness on the part of these individuals.

Scherl and English (1972) state the overriding social concomitant of poverty is the absence of power. Powerlessness refers to an individual's inability to control or alter significantly one's life situation and the forces impinging upon them.

Therefore, it becomes necessary that counselors in the urban areas be able to inspire students, parents and communities with hope in order to be effective.

Mayfield (1972) relates that residents are less healthy than most other Americans. They suffer from higher incidence of diseases, lower availability and utilization of medical services and higher admission rates to mental hospitals. Their environment often consists of dilapidated and overcrowded housing, unsanitary health conditions, noise, industrial fall-out from factories adjacent to their communities, etc.

Overcrowded situations limit the opportunity for self-expression. The individual's self-perception, his interpersonal relationships and even his health are affected by all of these negative environmental factors. Various systemic problems appear in the urban family life as a result of these factors. These problems include unemployment, underemployment, disease, hunger, pollution, crime, and other problems that prevent urban Americans from realizing their true potentials.

The present educational system is not meeting the needs of the urban youngster. It is laden with a number of problems. First, there is the problem of the high drop-out rate. A review of the literature reveals that twenty-two out of one hundred students in the fifth grade do not complete high school or its equivalent. These individuals who drop out are disproportionately poor Blacks, and Hispanics along with poor Whites.

According to Jones (1977), for these children much of the cherished American dreams of equity, equality of educational opportunity and the pursuit of happiness are a cruel hoax. These youngsters are not provided with the teaching and learning techniques, strategies, and programs that would compensate for and offset the handicaps that have been imposed upon them because of birth, historical circumstances, and various environmental conditions. Counselors could play a vital role in assisting schools in meeting the above challenge.

Urban education has been described by some as a design for human waste. In many urban school systems, the students come to know only frustration as achievement and success eludes them. The outcome of all of this is that for many youngsters, thinking of themselves as people means thinking along pathological lines.

According to the literature, thirty-two percent of the Black students drop out of high school as compared to sixteen percent of the white students. Each year in the United States approximately one million youngsters drop out of school and most of them never return to get their high school diploma. A New York State study revealed that the dropout faces "relatively high unemployment and relatively low earnings. Other evidence suggests that school drop-outs are more prone to juvenile delinquency than graduates and more likely to require public assistance of all types than graduates. In other words, the cost of early school learning to the learners themselves, and to society in general, is high." What are some of the factors that lead to this dilemma?

Urban schools receive inadequate financial support from local, state, and federal sources. They receive less expenditures per pupil than their suburban counterparts. According to the Coleman Report (1966), students in these schools have less access to physics, chemistry and language laboratories, there are fewer books per pupil in their libraries, and their textbooks are less often in sufficient supply. This alone is not the problem, but when you consider that most special settings offer very little in counseling, what difference does it make if school systems provide excellent materials, schools, and other resources if the urban child is not mentally ready to take advantage of the opportunities.

Counselors in special settings could be of great value in helping to reshape and direct students in special settings toward a better life. The special settings of today are in need of persons with a basic understanding of motivation, learning and drive as they relate to persons living and learning in stressful situations.

Urban schools are also plagued by violence. There are numerous reports of students assaulting each other as well as various school personnel. In 1974, Senator Birch Bayh headed a committee to investigate juvenile delinquency. The survey revealed that more than 100 students were murdered on school grounds in 1973 and vandalism costs were in excess of 500 million dollars. Recent NEA Teacher Opinion Polls reveal that 50,000 to 60,000 teachers are physically assaulted each year. This has necessitated that in most of the major cities, police officers are assigned to the buildings. The buildings have the appearance of miniature prisons. In some cases, students are required to have I.D. cards to enter or leave the buildings.

The widespread use of drugs is another concern. Incidents have been reported that the sale and use of drugs are prevalent even in the elementary schools. Teachers report that their students come to class under the influence of drugs. Schneider (1977) reports that a local drug counselor revealed to him that "students who show up in school apparently drunk may not be drunk at all but under the influence of an animal tranquilizer."

According to the literature, sixty to ninety percent of youths between the ages of fifteen and twenty have experimented with alcohol. However, only about five percent could be classified as "problem drinkers." The data also indicates a significant increase in recent years of drinking and alcohol related problems among youths. Upper level high school students tend to drink more frequently than rural youngsters, male more than female, and upper income class and lower social income youths more than middle class youths.

Busing of youth from community to community has plagued our society. Students are brought together from various walks of life with little preparation of how to work and grow together. Many of these youngsters come from homes where they are taught to hate each other because of their color, religion or sex. Thus, we quite often bus their bodies but not their minds. Counselors are gravely needed to aid our youth in learning how to accept each other for what they stand for and not according to their skill, color, sex, or religion.

The lack of counselors in these settings to assist students, parents and teachers toward a better understanding of people have caused many problems that could have been avoided. While busing has helped students to come together in school settings, it has not necessarily helped them to grow together in a meaningful healthy manner.

Blacks and whites alike find themselves fearful for the lives of their children as they leave for school each day. Counselors can and should be employed to assist in dealing with the many fears that prevail in our school settings. Any time you find persons coming together for the first time where they will have to be together for long periods each day, someone is needed to help smooth the relationships.

It should be pointed out that quite often teachers and other school personnel do not want to work in the urban schools. Due to circumstances beyond their control, they are forced to work there. Thus, the students are confronted with individuals who are not mentally prepared to meet their needs and who are afraid of being in that particular environment.

The urban area also impacts upon individuals in other settings. Migration from rural to urban areas is a frequent occurrence. Individuals make this move in the hopes of bettering their position in life. Consequently, many rural youth find themselves involved in such a transition. The style and pace of urban education is quite different from what they're accustomed to. They often need assistance in making a smooth transition into their new environment.

Some of the students complete their secondary education in rural areas and then migrate to urban universities and places of employment. They, too, find that they are unprepared to successfully handle the myriad of problems that confront them in a highly technological setting. Students leaving the rural areas need to know how to cope with the various changes that they encounter. Counselors should be able to assist students and their parents in making the proper adjustments.

The issue of busing has a direct influence in private-parochial schools. Many parents did not want their children to attend public schools once this transition was made. Consequently, there was increased enrollment in the existing schools and often a haphazard establishment of new schools in order to meet these needs.

The offspring of the upper middle class were the ones who usually attended private schools. However, with the absence of busing, parents with average incomes were sending their children to private schools. Here we find the union of diverse populations and the kinds of problems that can be created as a result of this union.

The declining economy had an impact on the private school also. As a result of the decline, many parents could no longer afford to send their children to private schools. Many parents found themselves transferring their children back to public schools. Thus, many children became confused and mentally scarred and in great need of a counselor who can assist them in making a meaningful adjustment.

In response to the recognition of the fact that a large number of students in the traditional school programs are alienated, disruptive and/or indifferent, alternative educational programs were developed. These programs were molded after a number of concepts, i.e., open classroom, school without walls, drop-in centers, and the other molds of learning with the intention of helping youngsters meet their educational and mental needs.

It has already been stated that traditional schools are facing closings, decreased enrollments, and teacher lay-offs. Accordingly, the funding sources for the alternative programs are beginning to disappear. It does not take much imagination to envision the plight of alternative schools. It is unfortunate in that many of these programs have been successful in their approaches and could serve as teaching mechanisms as to how the present system could be made more viable. It is also unfortunate in that these programs are often a last chance program for hope and existence for those individuals who have been deemed as misfits. The problem is further compounded in that once these schools are closed, these individuals are not left with too many options. They can either re-enter the public schools which alienated them in the first place or they can turn to the streets. Counseling has made the difference in the life of students. Quite often counselors in an alternative setting serve as the person who motivated children to learn, thus keeping their minds alert and their bodies off the streets.

According to Lance (1976), special education is viewed as developing in three stages: 1) treatment through segregation and restriction of resources for survival for people called different; 2) caring for people regarded as different by providing resources required for their physical existence; 3) instructing people so that they may be incorporated into existing, dominant social systems.

The past decades were characterized by segregation. The current trend is involved in stage three. This entails the concept of mainstreaming, i.e., incorporating these individuals into the existing systems. There is now a move towards integration and acceptance.

The whole concept of exceptionality is being expanded. It now embraces the gifted child, the abused child, the neglected child, etc. Stated another way, exceptionality encompasses all children for whom regular school programs must be adopted in order to meet their needs and to insure that they receive a quality education. Consequently, schools are not being required to provide services in addition to their regular programs, i.e., therapy, special diets, medical and health care, etc.

Vocational education is presently being closely scrutinized. There is much discussion focusing on vocational education and career education. Its current plight is best summarized by Wray (1976) when he questions the current value of vocational education. He contends that in addition to preparing our youth for jobs that exist today they must also be prepared for jobs that will exist in the future. He states that seventy percent of the jobs that will exist in the next fifteen years do not presently exist. He also believes that job training in and of itself does not constitute a complete education. It is his contention that career education may provide the answers needed to address these issues.

There are many other individuals who share a similar viewpoint. Vocational education is primarily viewed as being skill oriented with employment as its primary goal. On the other hand career education is viewed as education for total human growth. Attention is focused upon all aspects of the individual, i.e., affective as well as cognitive development. Career education is viewed as a mechanism which will assist students in meeting the challenges of the future.

Clearly these trends highlight the importance and the need for guidance and counseling in special settings. They also highlight the need for changes within the counseling profession. The intent of counseling must be changed. Counselors need to move beyond the traditional one-on-one relationship and become totally involved in the school and community. In keeping with the diverse personalities within a school system, there is a need to foster positive interpersonal relationships between the students, teachers, and other school personnel and parents. In A Systemic Approach to Counseling, Gunnings (1976) advocates a more nontraditional approach. He views the counselor as an advocate, consultant, negotiator, confronter, advice giver and manipulator in behalf of his client.

Counselors need to become behavior specialists. They need to become knowledgeable in the areas of motivation, personality, learning economics, etc. In this manner they will be prepared to assist students to deal with life as it exists beyond the school.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS

How can we begin to implement these changes? A part of the solution lies in the revamping of current guidance and counseling training programs. There is a need to move from the traditional methodologies to more innovative ways.

This author views the guidance and counseling delivery system as consisting of three components. The first of these components is guidance. Guidance refers to providing students with direction in regard to life planning, i.e., helping to enable them to exist beyond their school days. Counseling refers to providing insight into the student's understanding of self. The intent is to help each student understand their own psyche and the impact that the environment has on it. The third component is that of consultation. The counselor acts as a consultant to other school staff members and to members of the community. The purpose here is to make these individuals cognizant of their impact upon the students.

This more innovative counselor should be an individual who is risk-oriented. This is an individual who must become more visible in the schools. There is a need to become more involved with the students. Something as simple as eating lunch with the students is an excellent manner of obtaining meaningful insight into the real character of the students. The counselor needs to be involved in curriculum planning, selection of school furniture and paintings, etc.

In essence, this new type of counselor is one who in addition to being aware of and concerned about the cognitive development of the student is also concerned about their affective development. This is an individual who displays empathy and understanding for the student as a total person.

Gunnings (1971) states that the traditional oriented counseling psychology program is deficient in several areas. Included in these areas is the curriculum.

Each counseling training program must include the necessary content that allows the pending counselor to gain insights into growth, behavior, personality, motivation, economics and politics of people in special settings.

Moore (1977) advocates that professional training for counselors must occur within a multi-cultural context. Attention needs to be given to the counseling interventions being taught with culturally divergent populations. Others had similar viewpoints. Bryson and Bardo (1975) assert that educators must insure that future professionals are provided with opportunities to be directly involved with individuals from varied cultural, educational and socio-economic backgrounds.

A review of the literature supports the fact that there is a trend developing in which the role of the counselor is being expanded. Fraser and others (1974) state that "counselors training is often limited to skills that will enable counselors to work effectively with other professionals who are also involved with the student." These professionals include social workers, probation officers and mental health professionals.

As has been previously stated, ours is a multicultural society. Presently the needs of all our youth are not being met. The challenge was insured most effectively by Moore (1977) when he stated "we are standing at the threshold of a future when psychologists, counselors and student personnel workers will become responsible advocates for the growth of all people, regardless of their income, color, ethnic origin, or sex" (p. 362).

In order to begin to move towards the accomplishment of this goal, the following recommendations are offered. There should be a required unit in guidance and counseling which all students must take beginning at the elementary level. These classes should consist of group work which focuses primarily on the similarities and differences among people and attempts to foster a respect for these similarities and differences.

School districts should receive funds for counselors based on the number of students in the district. Extra funds should be given to those districts with high crime, drugs, drop-out rates, and where low income persons reside. Each school district should be required to have a director of guidance and counseling division. Each state should receive funding from the federal government to establish a strong guidance and counseling unit.

This author recommends that counselors should have twelve month appointments. Individuals could utilize this time to further their community contacts and make the necessary changes to allow for a smooth operation during the upcoming year. Counselors need to become familiar and work with their school boards. They can make an impact on the kinds of decisions that are made.

This author is also in favor of state licensure to insure that the counseling profession consists of individuals who are competent. Because of the tremendous impact that counselors can have on the students, it is necessary to insure that they are knowledgeable and properly trained to effectively deal with their concerns.

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Guidance and Counseling with Special Populations

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I. OVERVIEW

This paper deals with the issue of guidance and counseling with special populations as it relates to the status of counseling. Special populations within the context of this paper relate to any group of people that represent a subgroup within the context of the majority society of the United States. These groups can be viewed as lacking both the financial resources and power to effect changes in the physical or psychological quality of their lives. Although many subgroups meet the qualifications for special population status, this paper will focus on issues relating to the counseling and mental health needs of five target populations. These include: non-whites, specifically Blacks; Hispanics; Native Americans and Americans of Asian descent; women; economically disadvantaged, which has been operationally defined as low income groups regardless of race or ethnic background; the physically handicapped and exceptional students particularly the gifted and the foreign born student of color.

In any discussion of the status of counseling services in schools, these special populations must be given present and future consideration for several important reasons. First, a cursory review of current patterns indicates a steady growth of these special populations which will continue into the next decade. Second, the last several decades have seen these groups achieve considerable legislative and social advances. Gains made by Black people, women and handicapped persons in terms of new laws and social thrusts are but samples of these legal advances. Third, the history of governmental policy and action towards certain subgroups has resulted in a long series of physical and psychological upheavals for their members. For example, the government's historical, systematic destruction of tribal life has resulted in profound effects on the physical and mental well-being of Native Americans. In addition, the recent military involvement in Southeast Asia has resulted in an influx of people from this area. These people have brought to the United States external as well as internal fears (bloodshed and destruction caused by repeated exposure to these types of traumatic experiences). A fourth rationale for the inclusion of these special populations in a review of the status of counseling in schools is found in the traditions of institutional racism, sexism and alienation. These longstanding institutional traditions at all levels have placed stresses both outwardly and inwardly on large portions of American society. This, therefore, has become manifested in the multitude of seemingly pathological behavior patterns of members of special populations.

Finally, this issue must be addressed in light of an expanding consciousness which has caused concern and respect for human rights and welfare and which has led to new dimensions and the focal points for movement on all fronts — in education, in social sciences, and in the general society.

It is for these reasons that the status of counseling and guidance with special populations in public schools cannot be overlooked. The issue must be thoroughly discussed and evaluated in an attempt to develop viable, effective, relevant counseling service delivery to these subgroups.

II. DISCUSSION

The importance of guidance and counseling with special populations comes into sharp focus as we prepare to enter the next decade. The 1980's will see the growth of most social systems which form the basis of the American way of life. These systems will continue to exert profound pressures on the affective and cognitive development and functioning of individuals. Unfortunately, these pressures will be applied to members of the target special populations who to a large extent are cut off from the financial or power sources which form the basis of social systems.

Therefore, it is safe to assume that the Blacks and Hispanics who exist in a quagmire of substandard urban housing, inferior health care and inadequate educational opportunities, the handicapped who attempt to move about in an inaccessible world or the newly-arrived youngster from Southeast Asia who tries to cope with culture shock both in and out of the classroom will react strongly to the stressful conditions in which they find themselves. These members of the special populations must be seen as victims of systemic abuses and problems; their behavior must be understood as symptomatic reactions to the overwhelming environmental forces acting upon them.

This phenomenon and its accompanying challenges is beginning to have a significant impact on both the counseling profession in general and specifically in guidance service delivery in schools. This impact must, therefore, influence the future direction of counseling with respect to special populations. Counselors must begin to challenge and move away from a deficit model approach in counseling theory and technique. Consequently, instead of blaming the victim for his condition, the counseling profession must initiate the insight and sensitivity needed to recognize that problems are not always found in people but often exist within social systems. In addition, in moving from an individual to a systems approach with respect to intervention, the counseling profession must begin to challenge traditional approaches to service delivery. With this in mind, methodology and technique must be developed that are relevant in terms of the needs of special populations and their relations to social systems. In order to be both effective and relevant as mental health professionals, counselors must begin to conceptualize their role in terms of being change agents. This means that counselors will have to be armed with relevant skills that will enable them to facilitate challenges to the status quo of social systems. Part of this must involve an intensive schooling in the area of planned or programmed social action and change, particularly in the areas of developing, implementing and evaluating social policy. Still another challenge confronts counselors when they take an introspective look at guidance services delivery within the educational system as they relate to subgroups and systemic forces. It, too, is imperative that the counseling profession at all levels of education from early childhood through the graduate level begin to develop higher levels of consciousness with regard to the specific needs inherent in special populations (Vontress, 1969; Arbuckle, 1972). This entails creating an awareness of the systemic dimensions of racism, sexism and alienation and thereby attempting to better understand the lifestyles, experiences and values of students (Harper, 1973). This insight and sensitivity must, then, be translated into programmed and relevant intervention to facilitate positive cognitive and affective development in students from special populations at all educational levels. One concrete example of this translation is the development of special educational programs which offer support systems to these students to facilitate the attainment of positive educational experiences. The challenge for these programs and for the counseling profession is to develop these programs at all levels of education (Brown, 1972; Ballesteros, 1977). They must incorporate such things as:

a. bilingual or bicultural counseling programs to address the mental health needs of non-white elementary school youngsters and their families by incorporating their racial and cultural values and strengths in the therapeutic process;
b. career development programs for female high school students which focus on developing career strategies that will effectively combat sexism in the changing world of work, facilitated by counselors skilled in the psychology of women;
c. support programs for handicapped college students who have physical impairments which limit mobility but not motivation and who face alienation as they attempt to negotiate the physical and emotional barriers in the university system (Manus & Manus, 1971; Phillips 1972; Low, 1975; Dailey, 1977).

Basic to these programs and indeed all educational-system counseling and guidance with special populations is the issue of definition of role. Given the systemic aspects of counseling which must be looked at for relevant counseling with special populations, it becomes clear that counselors in the school guidance service delivery system must begin to move out of the role of counselor per se and into the role of programmed change agent. In this role, the delivery of counseling services in the schools takes on a different perspective. The change agent now looks beyond the individual student and into the system in which that student must interact. As an example, a change agent would expand his or her efforts in helping a gifted child to include the child's family in the intervention to insure that the family system is able to supplement an educational experience that allows for the full development of the child's natural gift or ability (Williams, 1974). Yu (1976) discusses the problems encountered by the Asian Americans in relationship to the American educational system. In another instance a counselor-change agent may find it necessary to intervene in any number of social systems to cushion the culture shock of a newly arrived student from Southeast Asia. In still another case it may be necessary to develop a programmed intervention strategy which calls for advocacy within the welfare system on behalf of an economically disadvantaged student (Ratchik, 1969; Smith, 1973).

Consequently, in the role of systemic change agent, the counselor who is concerned with the needs of these groups must develop the skills and techniques of advocacy. As an advocate for students, counselors should become proficient in facilitating their intervention into systems in ways that will ultimately improve the lives of students. Moreover, in this advocate role, counselors should become concerned and committed to the issue of human rights for young people both as students and human beings. The emphasis in this area involves direct intervention into those racist, sexist and alienating systems which operate to deprive students and young people of their rights. This intervention should include efforts on the part of the counselor to expand the levels of consciousness of systems' representatives toward the basic as well as the unique needs of these students and more importantly their fundamental right to obtain quality education at all levels.

In looking ahead to 1980, the role of the change agent within the guidance delivery system in education will also entail a critical examination of traditional theories of human development at all stages of life. These theories must be examined in the light of the unique developmental aspects of each of the special populations identified in relation to negative environmental interactions. In addition, the counselor working with these students must begin to look toward a non-traditional developmental theory base in attempting to explain personality and psycho-social development. Along the same lines, the change agent must assume an active role in developing an empirical base for this non-traditional developmental theoretical knowledge.

Most basic and most challenging to the delivery of guidance services in educational settings is the definition of the educational system itself. Traditionally, this system has been defined as an institution of socialization, whose main purpose is to impart the values and morals of society to students. This socialization, however, has represented the culture of the majority. Unfortunately, education as a democratic institution functions to normalize and insure that all who go through the system are instilled with the same socio-cultural value systems (that of the majority society) with little margin for individual differences.

Similarly, the continuing emergence of special populations has severely undermined this basic definition of the educational system. As students whose socio-cultural experiences differ significantly from those of the majority society continue to enter the educational system at all levels, the validity of the normalization aspect of the educational system becomes greatly strained. Instilling a basic and pre-determined value system which represents only one set of experiences implies a negation of cultural experiences which differ from it. In this instance, socialization becomes the leveling of all realities but the one which represents that of the majority.

Just as socialization must be scrutinized and re-evaluated, the counselor-change agent must confront the traditional philosophy of the educational system. The counselor, therefore, forms the vanguard of a movement to reshape the system into a true institution of education. He can no longer be an agent to incorporate all of the strengths and cultural realities which all students bring to the institution. Strengths and cultural realities must be effectively utilized in fostering physical as well as psychological development in students. Education must become a humanizing as opposed to socializing phenomenon. Consequently, as a humanizing force, the system should foster rather than attempt to alter reality.

In summary, a challenge for now and the coming decade to the counseling profession and specifically the counseling and guidance in the educational system, is that of evaluating the status quo in a manner that will foster the cultural differences of special populations. At all levels of education, counselors must develop the cognitive and affective awareness to become systemic change agents who are able to intervene between students from these subgroups and the systems which alienate them from educational advancement on the basis of sex, race, physical capabilities or any other aspect which differs from the society of the majority.

Optimally, on an individual level, this cultural sensitivity must be used by counselors to develop counseling techniques which capitalize on a student's uniqueness rather than penalize him or her and, thereby afford the student maximum human growth and development.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS

In order to effectively address the issues and challenges of guidance and counseling with special populations in schools, this paper offers specific recommendations in three main areas: professional preparation, legislative thrusts and the implication of this issue for Federal, State and Local counseling coordination and delivery agencies.

A. Professional Preparation

If the challenges of counseling with special populations in the educational system are to be met, the next decade must see the expansion of counselor training programs into areas which deal directly with the mental health needs of these target subgroups. The literature highlights and supports the need for counselor preparation for working with special populations. Collins and Collins (1974) maintain that counseling students from these subgroups is complicated and demands a high level of professional competence. Jones (1974) discusses the fact that educational institutions in the United States are staffed with counselors who have limited understanding of the needs of special populations. He continues that racist attitudes have prevented the establishment of programs to train counselors who are sensitive to the needs of special populations. Gunnings (1971), Mitchell (1971), Sue (1973), Aleman (1974) and Noble (1976) outline training approaches and programs designed to prepare innovative counselors to work with special populations. The focus is training systemic change agents as opposed to system maintainers.

Presently, a review of counselor education programs in colleges and universities around the country shows that few institutions have addressed themselves to the issue of counseling and guidance with special populations in terms of money, programs or time. Those schools which have committed themselves to training programs in the area appear to have done so on a limited or small-scale basis.

Since so few college programs have committed themselves to training programs in this area, a model is imperative. Such a model training program would assure adequate professional preparations in terms of developing insight into the culture and values of special populations and would adhere to the Education Professions Development Act of 1972. In addition, the model training program should contain four important aspects. First, the emphasis of the program should be on a systemic approach to counseling. Students should be trained in the art of systems understanding and modifications as a technique for relevant counseling intervention. This training should include an exploration of the interrelationships between the individual and the environment as it relates to the negative effects of systemic racism, sexism and alienation on the special populations.

Second, the program should focus on training change agents as opposed to counselors. The distinction lies in the fact that change agents are trained to challenge the negative aspects of systemic effects on humans as opposed to being system representatives charged with modifying behavior to fit the system. In order to accomplish this, students will be exposed to theories and methods of planned change as they relate to social institutions. Implicit in this aspect of training is a critical evaluation of traditional counseling theories and helping strategies and the formation of innovative and relevant empirically based theoretical approaches to counseling members of these populations.

Moreover, in order to facilitate the development of a deeper insight into the needs of members of special populations, a third aspect of the training program should be the incorporation of extensive practicum and internship experiences with these target groups. These could include counseling experiences in community mental health centers which provide services to non-white clients, women's counseling programs, social welfare agencies, vocational rehabilitation programs or educational programs for exceptional students. This practical experience will provide students with the opportunity to apply and to assess non-traditional intervention strategies.

Fourth, these programs should provide for the active recruitment of members from these special populations as students in counselor training. Who can better address the needs of these groups with empathy and insight than those who have shared the experiences with them firsthand. In most cases, the high levels of interest and commitment of these students should greatly facilitate the development of the counseling skills which are relevant to special populations.

B. Legislative Thrusts

The 1980's must see counselors who are concerned with the needs of special populations and who can make an impact on the legislative system in an effort to influence social legislation aimed at improving the health, education and welfare of these groups. Concerned counselors and other mental health professionals must assume the role of programmed change agents and become social action lobbyists. Along the same line, this push for social legislation should encompass all groups labelled as special populations. With regard to non-white groups, mental health change agents concerned with education should lobby for the formulation and passage of legislation which reflects the multicultural dimension of the educational system. This legislation should, therefore, include bilingual education acts, cultural heritage educational provisions and guidelines regarding cultural relevancy in standardized testing.

Lobbying, too, would be needed for women's counseling programs. In terms of counseling and the growing women's movement, counselors must organize a thrust for the passage of such provisions as the Equal Rights Amendment and expanded funding of programs for the development of women's education in the areas of career development, legal rights and health concerns.

Similarly, in the area of counseling the economically disadvantaged student, the counselor must push for effective and realistic antipoverty legislation that will form a base for effective service delivery. Realistic anti-poverty legislation would be based not on an individual deficiency model but rather on a systemic problem focus. A related area that must be considered in planning approaches for legislative lobbying is presenting proposals for the funding of expanded community mental health centers in both urban and rural poverty areas.

With respect to handicapped students, the past decade has seen the legislative destruction of many barriers which had limited the participation of handicapped students. Counselors must insure that this legislative trend continues into the next decade. As social action lobbyists they must work for the continual expansion of handicapped legislation. The ultimate social goal must be universal barrier-free laws in terms of both physical structure and educational resources for all qualified handicapped students at all levels of education.

Finally, counselors must organize and educate legislators in the area of child and student advocacy. Legislation must be forthcoming which protects the basic rights of all children with emphasis on the right to quality, compassionate educational development. This issue must be addressed in areas such as the educational system's misunderstanding and neglect of exceptional students. Legislative plans must be developed which gives counselors legal powers as student advocator for exceptional as well as all other students.

C. Implications for Federal, State and Local Counseling, Coordination and Delivery Agencies

There are two major implications for the Federal, State and Local agencies responsible for the coordination and delivery of counseling services in schools. First, these agencies must encourage the formation of counselor-action groups. These groups will form the nucleus of the mental health-counseling service social action lobby. These groups will advocate for the systemic changes necessary to provide quality education for special populations.

Second, these agencies must assume the leadership in developing guidelines for service delivery to special populations.

These guidelines should encompass the issues previously discussed in relation to the subgroups in the special populations and should state how counselors in the educational system can facilitate positive educational development.

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The Counselor and the Community

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A major objective of this paper is to explore the relationship between the community and effective counseling. Counseling denotes a professional relationship between a counselor and a client which is designed to help the client understand and clarify his view of his life space so that he may make meaningful and informed choices consonant with his essential nature and his particular circumstances in those areas where choices are available to him (Samler, 1970).

This definition implies that counseling is a learning process through which the client learns about himself as the center of his life space and about the people and institutions that share that space. The client is able to identify how other people and institutions impact on his development, and how he reacts to these influences. If the client is to make meaningful and informal decisions and to exhibit functional behavior, he must know himself, as well as identify the most likely consequences of the various behavior patterns he may manifest.

If counseling is to achieve the objectives of this definition it is necessary that those vantage points impacting client social-emotional functioning are examined. The three major vantage points concerned with devinitions of effective counseling are:

1. Community (including significant persons in the client's life)
2. Client
3. Counselor

A related discussion of these vantage points was presented by Strupp and Hadley (1977). They indicated that (1) society is primarily concerned with the maintenance of social relations, institutions, and prevailing standards of sanctioned conduct. Society and its agents thus tend to define mental health in terms of behavioral stability, predictability, and conformity to the social code.

(2) The individual client evaluating his mental health uses a criterion distinctly different from that used by society. The individual wishes primarily to be happy, to feel content. Some individuals will experience contentment coincident with behavioral adaptation, and there will be agreement by the individual and society that he is mentally sound. But the agreement is, nonetheless, between independent evaluations made from different vantage points. The individual may conceivably define himself as mentally sound quite independent of society's or the counselor's opinion.

(3) Most counselors tend to view an individual's functioning within a theoretical framework which transcends social adaptation and subjective well-being (although, professional judgments of another's social emotional functioning is frequently influenced by these latter two criteria). The pro-

fessional thus defines the client's functioning largely with reference to some theoretical model of a healthy and productive person that may on occasion result in a diagnosis at variance with the opinion of the community and/or the individual.

It follows from the preceding that the divergent vantage points described may result in different definitions of mental health of productive development and, consequently, generate discrepant evaluations of a given client's functioning and performance. It may be concluded that each person's functioning may be judged differently, depending on whether the community, the individual or a counselor makes the judgment. Concomitantly, a given individual is regarded as being in need of professional help to the extent that he deviates from the standards and values governing each of the vantage points.

If counseling is to be an effective source of helping in the community it is important that the values and concerns of the three vantage points (community, client and counselor) are incorporated in counseling practice. A major objective of this paper is to present an operational model through which counseling programs may tap the helping needs of the community. This model has two basic components: The attributes of the counselor and Trends in Program Planning for Community Based Counseling Services.

THE ATTRIBUTES OF THE COUNSELOR

The function of a counselor should be to help people resolve problems in a manner that promotes their growth and independence. According to Atherton, Conwell, Durkin, Gardner, and Nichols (1976), the counselor may accomplish this function by exhibiting certain attributes and skills.

a. Professional Purpose
b. Professional Values
c. Concept of Self and Others
d. Knowledge of Systems
e. Skills

A. Professional Purpose

The counselor should be able to describe an appropriate purpose for his work and show reasonable success in achieving the following:

1. to identify and describe the individuals or the groups he is working with regarding the bio-psychosocial characteristics of the problem situation, the needs and interests of the citizens/community

2. To accurately understand the objectives he and the citizens have established to meet the problems delineated, and to identify factors which may have a positive or negative effect on the outcome of your efforts in the delivery of counseling services to clients.

3. Describe and evaluate the effectiveness of the strategies of intervention used in working with the citizens/community as a counselor

B. Professional Values

The counselor should demonstrate that his professional values are functional and he clearly understands how they will affect his counseling

1. The counselor should show that he is able to accept the responsibilities of his profession by:

- Helping people achieve greater control over their lives.
- Sharing a broad range of skills and resources that are useful in problem solving by the client
- Respecting the privacy of those the counselor is working with and honoring the confidentiality of citizens' information.

2. The counselor identifies issues concerning the major categories of counseling in relation to his own views, and examines how his views are affected by these issues and how this affects counseling services.

3. The counselor should show in his performance as a counselor that he has respect for the ability of all people to take responsibility for decisions affecting their lives. He has respect for the feelings, needs and values of all people. The counselor should also show that he has respect for all people as persons in the process of becoming.

4. The counselor should show that he is able to recognize the above values or their absence, in the performances of others, and to work through the possible conflicts, by exhibiting the appropriate behavior in the context of his professional behavior.

C. Concept of Self and Others

The counselor should demonstrate an understanding of himself and others in relation to the function of a counselor:

1. He should accurately view himself in a variety of helping situations in terms of development of actualization; understanding of the psychological, social and political causes of problems; ability to handle difficult situations involving emotions and resistances of citizens to the helping situation.

The counselor should also show self-awareness of areas of potential value conflict such as public welfare assistance, housing, birth control, abortion, racism, genetics, death, aging, drug rehabilitation treatment modalities, financial budgeting and planning, marriage life, health and illness, unemployment, education, segregation vs. integration in education, public vs. private and parochial education.

2. The counselor should demonstrate that he has an acceptable level of understanding of human behavior and the many factors which affect it:

a. Psychological, psychosocial and psychosexual factors

b. The influences of major belief systems: the concept of faith — The Judeo Christian heritage — Buddhism, Hinduism, Muslimism and others.

c. Political Thought: utopianism-socialism-capitalism-fascism-communism.

d. The range and use of emotions.

e. Traditional concepts of personality disorders.

f. Reactive behaviors.

g. Behavioral pluralism.

3. The counselor should demonstrate knowledge of the applicability of various theoretical approaches to counseling practice, i.e., guidance — Psychotherapy — reality therapy — group therapy — encounter groups — behavior therapy — etc.

D. Knowledge of Systems

The counselor should demonstrate an understanding and awareness of systems in relation to his role as a counselor.

1. He should understand how his agency, as a system for helping people resolve problems, has an effect on his performance in specific situations, e.g., decision-making patterns, guidelines and regulations, caseloads, financial and budget allocations.
2. The counselor should be aware of and respond positively to the important historical developments of counseling services in the community.
3. The counselor should investigate local laws and procedures, and the community institutional resources that help people meet their needs.

E. Skills

The counselor should demonstrate the ability to make good use of appropriate and necessary skills in relation to his professional role by:

1. Making appropriate use of problem-solving skills with a client by:
    a. analyzing the problem situation with regard to data, needs, forces, people and issues.
    b. assessing the data both intrinsically and extrinsically to determine the scope of the problem bearer.
2. Making reasonable and appropriate use of learning and assessment skills for the purpose of:
    a. Helping clients assess experiences, needs resources
    b. Helping clients assess growth potential and needs.
    c. Assessing his own development as a counselor.
3. The counselor should use interpersonal skills while:
    a. Establishing an environment that encourages safety in expression of ideas.
    b. Building an understanding that both hear and understand each other.
    c. Identifying needs, emotions, behaviors and resources.
    d. Helping accelerate the movement of citizens through internalizing new behaviors.
    e. Explaining his technical style of intervention.
    f. Identifying and eliminating his own barriers to effective counseling.
4. The counselor should master the use of appropriate research skills to:
    a. Build a knowledge of institutions, people, laws, procedures and materials
    b. Locate and point out resources to meet needs of citizens
5. The counselor should utilize data handling skills which increase ability in a number of areas. (e.g., Interviewing in depth, communication in meaningful language, using technology including, where relevant, computers and others).

TRENDS IN PROGRAM PLANNING FOR COMMUNITY BASED COUNSELING SERVICES

According to Smolensky (1977), counseling and other human/mental health services have begun to focus their practices more in community based agencies. This is, for example, a departure from the tradition of counseling. In the past most counselors tended to work in some educational setting. However, they are now working in increasing numbers in broad based community agencies.

The development of several new concepts has helped to point up the importance of active and interlocking community activity in order to promote mental health in the broadest possible sense. Some of these include the growing awareness of the importance of social relationships in the etiology and treatment of social/psychological problems, the increased interest in the study of community mental health centers as social institutions, the introduction of public health concepts in the plans for treating and rehabilitating clients, and recognition of the special needs of the aged, the alcoholic, and drug addicted, and the mentally retarded (Katz, 1975).

The future will demand major alternatives in the attitudes of many groups of people toward counseling problems. Some of these changes will occur as the natural result of a changed situation. As more people receive help in their own communities for all graduations of problems, the attitudes of the clients, their families, and the communities will become more positive, less based on outmoded negative stereotypes on the one hand and falsely optimistic hopes on the other. Other changes in attitudes will be brought about partially, at least, through carefully thought-out information and education programs (Kaplan and Roman, 1973).

Community Mental Health Centers and Counseling Contract Services are established in many communities to offer help to children, adults, and families who would not otherwise get help. Some of the services found to be needed in many communities are listed in this section (Almond, 1975; American Public Health Association, 1975; Williams and Gordon, 1974; Smolensky, 1977). These services have been divided into Preventive and Treatment Services.

Preventive Services:

1. Counseling Consultation: Consultation by counseling and other human services professionals is offered to the personnel of schools, welfare, and other agencies to help handle the problem of their clients, recognize early signs of trouble, and deal with the social conditions which may contribute to emotional problems.

2. Information and Education: Upon request by individuals and groups, information is given and programs are conducted on such subject as local counseling and mental health services, social-psychological problems and their treatment, and health principles in relationship to everyday living.

Delivery of Counseling Services

1. Emergency Therapeutic Service: Help is available for anyone forced with an emotional crisis who may do harm to himself or to others, or is having difficulty caring for himself. Immediate appointments are given.

2. Suicide and Crisis Telephone Service: Suicide prevention and crisis service is available 24 hours a day. Someone is always waiting to listen and help. All calls are confidential.

3. Outpatient Treatment: People whose emotional problems do not require hospitalization may receive a short-term counseling treatment, and

referral assistance at most community based agencies. Treatment may involve individual, family, or group psychotherapy.

4. Child and Family Counseling: Both children and families may be accepted for counseling if the approach is seen as best for them. Also included are group, family and play therapy.

5. Alcoholism and Drug Control Programs: Treatment and rehabilitation services are provided for people with alcoholic and drug problems. Consultation and education are available to individuals and community groups.

6. Rehabilitative Services: A range of programs are available for clients who need extended counseling service. Occupational and recreational counseling, client group activity, drug and alcohol therapy, and group counseling are included in this service.

7. Family Stress Prevention Service: This service provides counseling for families in which child abuse has occurred.

CONCLUSION

In summary an operational model may help to tap the real counseling needs of a community. If the counselor's role and function, and counseling programs reflect the concerns of the community, the client, and the counselor, the delivery of services will be more effective. Assessment of counseling must be based wherever possible on accepted criteria of "good functioning," as seen in each of the above three vantage points. Failure to implement these principles can only mean a continued proliferation of scattered pieces of knowledge that cannot be fitted into an integrated understanding of whether counseling has any effects — either for good or ill — and how these effects are achieved.

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The Staff Relationships of School Counselors

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INTRODUCTION

Since the advent of the guidance movement in public schools, counselors have attempted to define and refine not only their roles, but also their relationships with other staff members within the educational structure. These two facets of the guidance function — roles and relationships — are necessarily interwoven; the various roles the school counselor assumes are to a large extent dependent upon the nature of his or her professional alliance with others in the educational setting: teachers, administrators, psychologists, social workers, and other school staff. Likewise, the degree of professional respect extended to the counselor by various staff members has been greatly influenced by the roles and functions which the counselor has assumed — voluntarily or not — within the school.

The purpose of this paper is to examine, from a historical perspective and review of contemporary issues, the interrelationship of counselors and various members of the educational community, with efforts toward explaining the influence of such interrelationships on counselor role. Current needs will be delineated and specific recommendations presented.

Following the passage of the National Defense Education Act in 1958, guidance programs, both in terms of training institutes and school services, increased dramatically. With the sudden proliferation of counselors placed in schools came an outpouring of professional opinions regarding what counselors should do and how they should interact with their professional colleagues. A primary emphasis was the focus on the "pupil personnel services" concept. Although psychologists and social workers had been actively involved in schools for years, they had remained identified with their own larger professions rather than becoming integrally involved with education. With the emergence of the "pupil personnel services" concept, counselors, psychologists, and social workers attempted to develop a team approach to the service of students.

First approaches advocated for the pupil personnel team involved problem solving; however, emphasis soon moved toward a developmental, preventive approach to services. Within this context, the school counselor was seen as a liaison agent, coordinator of referrals, and the leader of the team. Various writers made optimistic predictions for the future of the pupil personnel concept during this period of establishing guidance ideals. A model for a high school-based pupil personnel program proposed by Diedrich (1968, p. 8) included "a director of guidance, eight full-time, professionally trained counselors, an experienced school social worker, two school nurses, and a full-time school psychologist." At the same time however, authorities were aware of the myriad difficulties in implementing a fully functioning and communicating team; the concept appeared to work only in situations in which federal funds provided comprehensive services within a single school. Since this situation was rare, communication problems quickly developed. Cited reasons for the problems included the possibility that one profession could become threatened if another one seemed to be providing a similar service; that one profession could be ignorant of the functions of another; and the fact that there were difficulties in determining who would be "captain" of the team (Patterson, 1962; McGowan & Schmidt, 1962).

All of the above named difficulties plagued the pupil personnel concept during the sixties. The various professional groups were unsuccessful in delineating their roles to the satisfaction of the others; as each sought an "expanded" role, all became increasingly overlapping and indistinguishable. For example, McDaniel (1965) described the role of the school psychologist as: working with individual children; consultations with teachers and school administrators; parent consultations; consultations with school committees; inservice teacher education; and consultation with other professionals in the community. It is not surprising that confusion existed, since such a role description could easily be adopted by school counselors or social workers.

This problem and that of each service being largely ignorant of the other was succinctly pointed out by Arbuckle (1967) who observed that "when we check the literature of each camp looking for 'functions', the similarity is startling. On the other hand, it is somewhat distressing, but not unexpected to note that the literature of each camp practically ignores the existence of the others."

The problem of determining who would "captain" the pupil personnel team was never satisfactorily resolved. Although most writers on the topic (who generally represent the guidance camp) suggested the counselor as the logical choice, there is little evidence that psychologists or social workers concurred, and in fact, the school psychologist generally held the most "prestigious" position among pupil personnel workers.

In mapping strategies for the improvement of relationships among pupil personnel workers, most authorities agreed on several points:

- guidance personnel, because of their advantages in terms of numbers and physical location within the school, should take the initiative in actively seeking cooperation and collaboration of others (Diedrich, 1968)
- the pupil personnel worker must cooperate with his/her colleagues or lose the opportunity to make a significant impact upon the educational process (Shear, 1965)
- practitioners, educations, State Department personnel, and leaders in professional organizations need to demonstrate increased willingness to function cooperatively (Ferguson, 1965)
- professional competence needs to be strengthened, both through adequate pre-service training programs and inservice experiences (Patterson, 1962, Diedrich, 1968)

At the same time that counselors were exploring their relationships within the pupil personnel bailiwick, they were facing similar difficulties in their relationships with classroom teachers. Although most counselors entered their jobs directly from the classroom and therefore were knowledgeable of the problems inherent in the teaching process, they saw their primary role as one-to-one counseling with students. The emphasis on personal counseling and problem solving, perhaps fostered through psychologically oriented training and perpetuated by the counselor's relationships with school psychologists and social workers, resulted in relationship problems with teachers and administrators. Teachers found little evidence that counselors were interested in meeting their needs, tending instead to "coddle and pamper" students, while hiding behind a "pretense" of confidentiality (Darley, 1956). Administrators saw counselors in a similar light, and studies did show that many counselors were functioning as quasi-administrators or as "junior psychologists". The difficulties in establishing roles and relationships were further hampered by differing opinions with the profession. Some strongly advocated that counselors identify with pupil personnel services (Arbuckle, 1967). Hoyt (1961, 1962) on the other hand, strongly supported the notion that the counselor must hold a career commitment to education, and that the teacher should be his/her chief professional ally in the attainment of guidance objectives.

In spite of the many articles written describing the various ways that counselors could serve as consultants to teachers in facilitating the developmental needs of students, the reality was that very little was accomplished in actual practice. To some extent, counselors were responsible: some found administrative work more prestigious; some were insecure in approaching teachers; and some were overly involved in one-to-one psychological counseling and the isolation that such a role fosters. Responsibility, too, must rest on counselor education programs; many were overly involved with theories of personality and counseling to the exclusion of the counselor's work with other adults in the education community. School administrators, too, hindered the development of professional consulting relationships. Many administrators had counselors thrust on them as a result of federal mandates; they frequently did not welcome counselors, nor were they knowledgeable of the field of guidance or the counselor's role. Consequently, many school administrators were not prepared to be supportive of counselors, to reward and stimulate creative thinking and innovative approaches within the school, or to allow counselors freedom to develop new ways of working with teachers and other school staff.

As a result of these varied influences, counselors were unsure of their own identity; but many did not attempt to articulate their roles in their various publics, passively accepting, instead, convenient functions as clerks or quasi-administrators (Shertzer and Stone, 1963). Likewise, consultation and collaboration activities with teachers were generally confined to joint participation in parent-teacher conferences and informal discussions in the teachers' lounge.

Adding to the confusion and conflict regarding the counselor's role during the sixties was a lack of consensus regarding the counselor's immediate supervisor. Generally, it was advocated that the district guidance supervisor serve as the administrative leader of all school counselors.

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In fact, however, a quiet power struggle was in evidence between the district supervisor and the school principal. Guidance supervisors saw themselves as logical persons to employ, guide and evaluate counselors, as well as to provide programmatic assistance in establishing new guidance programs and methods. The principal, on the other hand, considered the school and everyone in it his/her responsibility; therefore, to his thinking, a line relationship existed between him and the counselor; he should employ counselors that would best fit in with other school staff and meet needs as they saw them. Consequently, school counselors found themselves attempting to relate to two superiors, who very often differed in their requirements, expectations, objectives, and general methodology. The result of these differing views of the counselor's relationship with staff members was that the sixties, far from being the "halcyon days" as frequently reported in the literature, were in reality a time of searching: for models, identification, substantive roles, and for positive professional relationships. The search for the "ideal situation" was further characterized by a disparity between the professional literature and actual practice.

Current Counselor/Staff Relationships and Needs

As Gerald Pine (1975a, 1975b) has pointed out, school guidance services are in serious trouble today. In an increasing number of schools, counselors are thought of as frills; some states have introduced legislation designed to either curtail activities of school counselors or to offer paraprofessionals as substitutes; some school systems have eliminated counseling jobs entirely. The 1971 Gallup Poll on education revealed that counselor removal was a high priority item in terms of economizing.

In examining specific criticisms of counselors to determine the reasons that school guidance services are in such a defensive and untenable posture, much evidence points to continuing difficulties with counselor role and relationships with other adults on the school staff. As Hines (1973) observed, counselors were placed in schools, and then the question of their role and function became an issue. In the struggle to please their various publics, counselors generally have succeeded in pleasing no one, least of all themselves.

In spite of the exhortations of writers in the early sixties regarding the concept of pupil personnel services as an equal partner with curriculum and administration, the reality is that pupil personnel services, as a team effort, has not fared well at the grassroots level. Many state departments of education and local school districts are administratively structured so that guidance, social work, and psychological services (and sometimes health, exceptional student education, attendance services, Title I and others) are encompassed under one umbrella of pupil services. In many cases, however, this organizational pattern is only a convenient method of grouping a collection of services which do not neatly fit within another structure. At the school level, the pupil personnel concept is generally an extremely limited one. Counselors and social workers or visiting teachers may confer regarding a particular student when home or attendance problems are a key issue; counselors and school psychologists may meet periodically to review results of screening procedures for a student referred to an exceptional student program. By and large, however, the "team" approach initially designed as the pupil personnel concept has not survived. The reasons are many: the fact that counselors are school-based while social workers and psychologists are usually itinerant has made it difficult to establish a day-to-day working relationship. Frequently, social workers and psychologists serve ten or more schools; their visits to a particular school are often scheduled on a random, or crisis-oriented basis; frequently they have no personal contact at all with the counselor when they visit the school. Another impediment to the implementation of the team approach has been the changing roles of psychologists and social workers themselves. With the passage of many state laws, as well as P.L. 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, school psychologists have been forced to devote their time almost exclusively to testing and retesting children for eligibility in special programs. Thus, their role as partners with counselors in the consultation, staffing, classroom prescription, and parent education process has been largely eliminated. Social workers and visiting teachers have had similar pressures. Because of tight economic conditions, schools have become increasingly concerned with school attendance as a financial problem; social workers have, in many school districts, had to abandon their home-school liaison role in favor of the more structured and impersonal function as attendance checker and truant officer. They, too, spend little time in the school other than to review attendance records. In some school districts, the role of the social worker has been even more drastically altered to that of an in-school suspension monitor. In this role, the social worker's title is sometimes changed; in any case, his function as a student advocate is revoked and there is little communication with the counselor in the school.

Another possible cause for the rapid deterioration of the pupil personnel concept is the never-resolved issue of professional identification. School psychologists maintain their primary identity with the field of psychology; school social workers continue to align themselves with the broad area of social work; in both cases, the school is frequently perceived as an agency or institution to be served by outside consultants. The school counselor, by virtue of training and experience as a teacher as well as physical location within the school, has held at least partial identification with education.

The pupil personnel concept was perhaps destined for demise because of the lack of a staff relationship among the different workers and the differences in line relationships in terms of administration. With directives and leadership coming from different sources, it has been difficult, at best, to view the pupil personnel "team" as a cohesive, working partnership.

In the sixties, counselors were struggling to determine who would serve as their supervisor: the school principal or the district guidance director. In the seventies, the issue appears to be closed, though perhaps not in a position favorable to counselors. The continuing press for accountability has resulted in increasingly more control by the building principal. In most elementary and secondary schools today, counselors report to the principal: he or she is responsible for their employment, programming, evaluation, and leadership. The burden of serving two supervisors is, for all intents and purposes, lifted; however, the uncomfortable fact is that the principals today are no better trained in guidance than they were 20 years ago; most school principals, in fact, have never had any formal training and their views toward the role and function of counselors differ from those of counselors themselves (Donigian, 1974).

Regarding the district guidance supervisor, studies continue to show that he or she is largely ineffective as a leader of counselors (Donigian, 1974, Biggers, 1976). Most guidance supervisors have a staff relationship with counselors; while they may serve to coordinate inservice training and interpret local policies and procedures, they possess low levels of authority within the school system and thus are ineffectual in affecting personnel needs, improving counselor-student ratios, evaluating counselors, and taking corrective action where needed (Biggers, 1976).

With supervisory leadership primarily in the hands of school principals, counselors are "victimized" (Aubrey, 1973) and restrained from developing their own potential. Yet, counselors must assume responsibility too; principals frequently assign job descriptions for counselors because the counselors themselves are too passive to articulate their own role (ine, 1975a). It is ironic that in this era of survival, school counselors may well defeat themselves. Counselors' passivity may be related to their need for job security and the realization that the principal determines all the functions of the school (Wells, 1974), but this same lack of assertiveness has certainly contributed to the lack of job security which currently exists! Now, more than ever before, school counselors need dynamic leadership. The district supervisor or director of guidance should serve as the professional role model (Donigian, 1974); counselors want leaders who are professionally competent and concerned and who can serve important functions of program development, maintenance, and facilitation of role implementation (Donigian and Wellington, 1971; Lindberg, 1972). In short, school counselors should be supervised by and report directly to the district guidance officer. This person should serve programmatic, personnel, and coordination functions regarding all counselors in the district. The counselor's relationship with the building principal then becomes a staff relationship.

Paraprofessionals have been used as support staff for a number of years in many institutional settings. In elementary and secondary schools, however, the guidance paraprofessional is a phenomenon of the seventies, and very little literature has been devoted to the paraprofessional's place in guidance (Hopke, 1976). The growth of the paraprofessional movement has been characterized by a diversity in approaches, from an emphasis on peer counseling (Varenhorst, 1974) to guidance associate (North Texas State University, 1973), to the occupational specialist (Rand, 1973). Within the school setting, the paraprofessional movement has been developed as a potential solution to the role and function problems of the school counselor. The use of paraprofessionals in testing, peer facilitation, liaison with minority populations, scheduling and information dissemination can serve to free counselors to spend more time, not only in direct counseling with students, but also in consultation with teachers and other school staff. In addition, the use of paraprofessionals can serve as an answer to the cost-effectiveness aspects of the accountability movement (Gatewood and Teare, 1976).

As with the guidance movement, the growth of the paraprofessional movement has, thus far, been characterized by a lack of clear ole definition, inadequate training or lack of opportunity to implement training, and difficulties in interpersonal relationships with other staff (Feild and Gatewood, 1976). Although the use of paraprofessionals is generally favored in elementary and secondary guidance programs (Locke and Hayes, 1975) and have proven effective (Brown, 1974), the working relationships between counselors and paraprofessionals is tenuous.

In spite of the obvious benefits of paraprofessionals, counselors have not always welcomed them enthusiastically. In this era of survival, it appears that counselors have viewed the paraprofessional, not as a means of facilitating the counselor's own professional role and thereby allowing him to justify his counseling responsibilities, but rather, they have been seen as a threat to the counselor's job security (Brown, 1974; Feild and Gatewood, 1976). Counselors have had little training or knowledge in how to train and supervise paraprofessionals. Thus, counselors have found little incentive to use paraprofessionals; both groups, instead of discussing problems, have tended to ignore them, a situation which "results in the subverting of preconceived or prepared roles and eventually to the resentment of the paraprofessional" (Feild and Gatewood, 1976, p. 183).

The solution to such interpersonal problems appears to lie in several steps. The tasks and qualifications of paraprofessionals as defined by ASCA (1976) need to be adhered to. School counselors should participate in selection and training of paraprofessionals, and serve as their supervisors (Zimpfer, 1974). Adherence to such procedures would serve to reduce threat to the counselor, provide for his professional judgment to be utilized, involve him personally and professionally with the paraprofessional from the beginning, reduce the possibility of role conflict, allow the counselor control over the guidance program, and encourage him toward a more proactive and positive stance regarding paraprofessionals and their abilities.

Counselors' efforts to serve as consultants to teachers, and indeed, their total efforts to establish personal and professional relationships with teachers have resulted in a series of paradoxical situations. Teachers complain that counselors exclude consultation from their roles and want consultation services from counselors, but they tend to resist when it is offered. Counselors see consultation as an important function for themselves, but they spend very little time doing it. Writers in the field of guidance who espouse consultation in its many manifestations are seldom practicing counselors; and while counselor educators have long spoken out in favor of consultation for counselors, very little emphasis is placed on it in training programs (Carlson, 1973, Dinkmeyer and Carlson, 1977).

In spite of problems with the consulting role, professional literature on the topic continues to grow (Gerter, 1976) and consultation is seen, not only by counselors and teachers, but also by principals as an important guidance function (Dietz, 1972).

In facing the realities of the seventies, counselors need to address other issues before they will be able to implement the various consulting strategies recommended in the literature. Teachers continue to hold negative views of counselors, particularly in secondary schools. Commonly held complaints include opinions that counselors have "soft" jobs, take students out of class at inconvenient times and for inconsequential reasons, are too permissive, serve as overpaid clerks, and operate as "privileged characters" in the school (Wittmer and Loesch, 1975). Likewise counselors are frequently heard to complain that teachers are too autocratic, don't really like children, think education begins and ends with their particular subject area, don't know how to relate to students in an effective manner, and take no personal interest in their students. Arguments for and against each statement made by one group toward the other could be well documented with evidence; however, the central issue is not one of placing blame, but rather overcoming these obstacles to communication (Resnick and Gelso, 1971). Since counselors are in a more precarious position, have services to "sell" to teachers, and are theoretically the "human relations" experts in the school, the overtures for bridging the communications gap must come from them.

Establishing positive personal relationships, however necessary, are insufficient as means of setting the stage for effective counselor/teacher collaboration. Interwoven with demonstrating that counselors are not characterized by the myriad of negative traits thrust on them by teachers is the necessity, long talked about but seldom acted upon, of articulating their role in a manner which is understandable, acceptable, and observable, (Wittmer and Myrick, 1974). Inherent in this step is the necessity for counselors to be able to cope with establishing a new role, instead of maintaining the status quo as they are apt to do (Allen, 1975).

The current need for psychological education as a focus of the school curriculum — and the total educational community — is evidenced through the struggles that teachers face daily: establishing classroom discipline; coping with students with cultural differences or family problems; drug abuse, racial and sexual prejudice, and other forms of societal stress. An important determinant of the teacher's ability to deal with psychological aspects of the curriculum is his or her ability to develop workable communication skills with the students. The role of the counselor in relation to the teacher in psychological education is three-fold: individual consultation regarding solution of specific problems; training and teaching teachers in group situations for the purpose of developing preventive strategies and communication skills; and collaborating with teachers to develop classroom approaches to enable students to develop life coping skills. The role of the counselor as a trainer or teacher or teachers is a significant departure from traditional conceptualizations of consulting. The strength of this approach overshadows possible limitations and obvious changes. Developmental and therapeutic guidance can be accomplished by the classroom teacher (Pine, 1974), while the counselor serves as the strategist and trainer (Carroll, 1973; Ivey, 1976; Sprinthall, 1973). Because present circumstances dictate that counselors typically see only 15% of the students assigned to them (Mosher and Sprinthall, 1971), focus on training teachers will insure that students receive increased direct personal contact (Taylor and Hoedt, 1974); the team approach accomplished through a systematically developed curriculum (Sprinthall and Erickson, 1974) can [illegible]ure that the didactic skills of the teacher are complemented by the counselor's therapeutic skills. The efficacy of the training approach to consultation has already been shown: results of several studies (Patterson and Sikler, 1974; Hocking and Schnier, 1974; Resnikoff, 1976) have indicated that classroom climate is positively affected through the training approach; Hawn (1977) found that teachers who function at a high level of interpersonal communications can and do teach the same skills to their students. The implication for counselors is obvious: train the teachers so they, in turn, can facilitate student psychological needs. The counselor can function as a trainer to teams of teachers, who can develop various classroom strategies which mesh with the total curriculum. Inservice programs could be a major function of the counselor, who would train teachers in large groups in order to provide opportunities for professional growth, sharing ideas, and receiving feedback (Jones, 1977, Mayo, 1976).

The training function of counselors need not be limited to teachers. Theoretically, counselors can serve as effective trainers of administrators and other school and educational community personnel. Counselors have already been active trainers of students through peer facilitation programs and of parents through parent study and parenting groups.

The value of services and the relationship of the counselor to the paraprofessional could be strengthened through effective training (Moore, 1974; Pine, 1976). Principals have endorsed the concept of staff consulting (Dietz, 1972), and positive results of consultation with principals are beginning to appear in the literature (Carr, 1976). Training of volunteers and community personnel will be needed as schools expand their educational environments.

The benefits of counselor consultation through training are numerous: it would serve to strengthen the counselor-teacher bond; it would demonstrate the counselor's commitment to education; it would serve to make the counselor visible and accessible; it would help teachers and other school staff develop needed interpersonal communication skills; it would provide opportunities for both teachers and counselors to interact with and assist greater numbers of students on a personal level; it would provide students with appropriate role models; it would assist large numbers of students to participate in various life coping and developmental skills; it would provide a sound framework for the development and articulation of the counselor's role; it would serve as a vehicle for counselors to develop a leadership position within the school; and it would promote interest in needed social change.

The roadblocks to the implementation of a training role for counselors are not numerous, but they are, nevertheless, formidable. The persons who would be responsible for operationalizing psychological education — counselors and other staff members — seldom express their ideas in print (Arbuckle, 1976); their interest, commitment, and ideas must be expressed and promoted among their own colleagues in order to gain acceptance. Counselors must be able to develop consultation skills, program planning skills, and an active public relations program in order to establish credibility. Administrative support is both difficult and vital to obtain. District and state guidance supervisors, as well as ASCA and APGA, would need to actively support the role; counselor education programs would, in some cases, require considerable revamping.

Although the counselor's primary function with other school personnel needs to be as a consultant, there will continue to be a need for collaborative responsibilities. Counselors need to strengthen their relationships with school personnel such as librarians and exceptional student education teachers, personnel who have vital lines in the educational process, but with whom counselors have had limited professional contact. The school librarian or media specialist, for example, is in an excellent position within the school to work in collaboration with the counselor. He or she has the opportunity to know students by name and to observe their working habits and interactions; the librarian is in a non-evaluative position and therefore able to relate to students in a non-threatening manner; and he or she has a flexible schedule which can be adapted to counseling and consultation services (Kelly and Midgette, 1972). The counselor and the media specialist can establish cooperative referral systems whereby they are in communication with teachers relative to students with special needs. They can cooperatively develop storytelling, book talks, and special programs to begin the concept of success at the elementary level; they can sponsor programs, viewing of materials, and career explorations for students at all levels; they can make cooperative efforts to disseminate college and career information; and they can cooperatively ascertain that appropriate materials are available for students and staff (American Library Association, 1972). The use of bibliotherapy as a supplement to individual or group counseling can be facilitated through joint efforts of the counselor and the librarian (Baruth and Phillips, 1976). Another compelling reason for counselors and librarians to collaborate on programming is the fact that most present federal support for both groups is awarded to states in a lump sum. Instead of competing for funds at the local level, counselors and librarians could develop joint programs based on existing needs. Materials and other resources for guidance purposes could be purchased jointly and used cooperatively.

There is increasing need for the school counselor to develop collaborative working relationships with teachers of students with various exceptionalities. Although the implications for counselors regarding P.L. 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, are not yet fully delineated, it is certain that since the implementation of this law, counselors, especially at the elementary level, have become increasingly involved with the screening and placement of students into special programs. In addition to these responsibilities, the counselor can assist in the dissemination of student information to the regular classroom teacher, serve as an advocate for close home-school interaction, and participate in needed follow-up after evaluations have been made (Freeman and Thompson, 1975).

Because of the significant expansion of exceptional student educational programs in recent years, the school counselor's responsibilities in this area have increased, but with out corresponding support in terms of personnel. In order to adequarely meet the demands resulting from P.L. 94-142 and similar state laws, counselors, particularly at the elementary level, need inservice training in various aspects of exceptionalities and they require assistance in terms of additional personnel to carry out the programs.

The Emerging Counselor: Recommendations for Action

If needs in the areas of professional relationships and roles were met, a new school counselor would emerge. This person would serve as a vital force for action in the educational community; he or she would be strongly identified with and committed to education in general and K-12 schooling in particular. One of the primary functions of the counselor would be to serve as a trainer/consultant to teachers, administrators, paraprofessionals and other staff members. The concept of developmental guidance would be expanded to "psychological education" and would thus involve all staff members in the development and implementation of the curriculum. The counselor would serve as a supervisor of all guidance paraprofessionals, and as such, would have responsibility for their selection, training, and evaluation, as well as on-going direction. The counselor would have clear-cut, well defined relationships with other educational personnel. Collaborative relationships would exist with librarians, special education teachers, and other staff in which joint programming efforts would be made and a systematic two-way referral system implemented. Counselors would exist in a staff relationship with school principals and in a line relationship with the district supervisor of guidance.

If this model were to be implemented, changes would have to be made by numerous individuals and organizations; changes not only in terms of policies and procedures, but also regarding attitudes, behavior, and skills. The following are presented as recommendations for the future:

1) Counselor educators need to examine their own skill areas and upgrade themselves where necessary.
2) Counselor educators need to develop and maintain liaison with and knowledge of the local school systems; they must become aware of the social forces operating within schools and must demonstrate a commitment to education.
3) Counselor educators need to base selection and retention of potential counselors at least partially on students' leadership and supervisory potential.
4) Counselor training institutions need to provide counselors with comprehensive skills in consultation theory and methodology, training procedures, supervision and organizational development.
5) Counselor education programs should provide in-depth knowledge and experiences in the various facets of psychological education and career development.
6) Counselor education programs should include opportunities for students to gain thorough knowledge of various exceptionalities, including behavioral characteristics, screening evaluation procedures, and local, state, and federal regulations governing placement.
7) Counselor training programs need to emphasize school-based practica; pre practicum experiences should be included as an integral part of every course.
8) Counselor education institutions need to experiment with alternative training programs, such as combinations of undergraduate and graduate experiences to facilitate the development of higher level skills while not "over-training" counselors out of the school "market".

9) Counselor education institutions need to expand their programs to include inservice experiences for the thousands of counselors who need additional training, as well as for the diverse needs of paraprofessionals.

10) Counselor education institutions need to develop innovative techniques for training and assessing counselor skills such as the competency-based model.

11) State level guidance leaders need to examine and, in some cases, revise the credentialing process in order to facilitate relevant and stringent counselor certification procedures.

12) State level guidance leaders need to examine particular aspects of current certification requirements (e.g., teaching experience) and make revisions in keeping with contemporary research and efficacy.

13) State level guidance leaders need to explore alternative certification methods, such as the competency-based approach to insure that skills (e.g., consultation, exceptional student screening) can be demonstrated.

14) State level guidance leaders need to maintain collaborative relationships with counselor education institutions and work cooperatively in areas such as program development, inservice education, and evaluation of guidance programs.

15) State level guidance leaders need to provide support for district guidance supervisors in terms of developing line responsibilities with counselors.

16) State level guidance leaders need to provide support for school counselors in terms of the restructuring of their roles and relationships; counselor advocacy with school boards and school and district administrators should become a primary function.

17) State level guidance leaders need to increase their personal contact with school counselors; they need to provide systematic inservice training, particularly in areas such as skill development, materials, and laws and regulations.

18) Local, state, and national professional organizations need to actively support the roles and relationships of the emerging counselor. Workshops for counselors, teachers, and administrators need to be conducted on a nationwide basis in order to educate staff, alter negative attitudes and solicit assistance. Programs at administrators' and teachers' conferences, as well as at guidance conventions need to be endorsed and conducted by leaders in the various school counselor groups.

19) Guidance leaders need to publish articles advocating emerging roles and relationships, not only in counseling journals, but also in the professional literature of teachers, administrators, and other educational groups.

20) Counselors need to make significant efforts on their own behalf. They need to demonstrate their value and importance to the educational systej; they need to become social activists; they need to define their roles as leaders and trainers; they need to band together in their efforts to make needed changes, and they need to publicize the results.

Just as counselors will not be able to make drastic and important changes in their staff roles and relationships without significant support from other groups, neither are educators, supervisors, and professional organization leaders likely to change radically in isolation. In order to reverse damaging trends and promote a national effort to redefine and implement the staff roles and relationships of the "emerging counselor", support, in terms of legislative, regulatory and financial assistance will have to be made. The U.S. Office of Education, with its power, prestige, and national influence, should spearhead the movement to effect the needed changes. Legislative support is needed to undergird the effort; financial assistance to provide both incentive and necessary programmatic and training changes, is mandatory. Specifically, grants and awards are needed to allow counselor education programs to develop new courses, training procedures, and provide for staff development. State level guidance staff need both financial assistance and legislative authority to move from regulatory roles to increased emphasis on staff development. Professional organizations need support from both the Congress and the U.S. Office of Education to facilitate their efforts in conducting workshops to train and educate school personnel to the role of the emerging counselor.

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Counseling and Guidance and the Law

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It can be assumed that the audience for which this paper is intended is quite knowledgeable about what is meant by counseling and guidance in American schools. It includes the work of the school counselor and other student personnel workers and the role of these professional personnel as general faculty members of the school. For example, a school counselor might supervise a school dance in his role as a member of the general faculty and not in his role as a counselor.

What is meant by law may not be equally clear to all readers of this paper. Therefore, I will take a few sentences to define this term.

What is Law?

There are four major types of law — common law, constitutional law, statues, and case law. Common law is our heritage from England and in some instances it might be considered equivalent to common sense. But more specifically, it is those rules of society that are generally understood but are not necessarily written down. Constitutional law is specified in the U.S. Constitution and the Constitution of the several states. Statutory law are those laws which are passed by Congress and by the legislatures of the several states. Case law is interpretation of constitutions or statutes by the courts. A great deal of the law that impinges upon the practice of counseling and guidance in American schools today is case law. Often we hear the expression "landmark" or "benchmark" cases mentioned. This expression refers to an extremely important precedent setting case, usually a ruling by the U.S. Supreme Court. An example of landmark cases is Brown v. Topeka in which the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that separate educational programs for whites and blacks are on their face unequal and therefore unconstitutional.

One might ask that, since the U.S. Constitution leaves education to the provinces of the states, how does the U.S. Supreme Court have any jurisdiction over educational issues? When the U.S. Constitution was first drafted and adopted, the framers of the Constitution could not agree on the rights of individuals that would be protected from majority control. It was not until later that the first ten amendments of the Constitution were adopted, which do protect certain rights of individuals against the vote of the majority. However, these amendments only required the federal government to guarantee its citizens those rights; it did not require state governments to do the same. It was not until the 14th amendment to the Constitution was adopted, that states were required to guarantee their citizens the same rights as provided in the Bill of Rights. Subsequent to the adoption of the 14th amendment, court interpretations of this amendment have said that state government includes publicly controlled schools and colleges. Thus, even though states have the legal jurisdiction over education, they must conduct education in accordance with the provisions and interpretations of the U.S. Constitution and amendments thereto.

Since laws themselves are not always specific enough to indicate how they apply to many individual situations, Congress and many state legislatures have provided means for such interpretation. Let's take a federal law, for example. Once a law passed by Congress and signed by the president comes into effect, the executive arm of the federal government studies the law and the Congressional hearings associated with the law to determine the meaning of that law and the intent of Congress in passing it, and then drafts proposed regulations as to how the law will be interpreted and enforced. These proposed regulations are then published in the Federal Register so that all interested and concerned people may indicate whether such regulations are adequate and fair. The executive agency receives reactions to the proposed regulations and, after considering such reactions, issues final regulations which, when issued, have the same force as the law itself. Thus, to understand any given piece of legislation, one most have the law and the regulations pertaining to that law in order to know fully what it means. Even then we may have court rulings about the law and its regulations which further clarify and define the law.

What is the Authority of Schools?

First we must distinguish between public and private schools. Public elementary and secondary schools are typically established by state statute. Typically, private schools are established by a charter, usually under some provision of state statutes. Whether a school is public or private is determined by the nature of its control and not its source of funding. If the governing board of a school is elected by citizens or is appointed by public officials who have been elected by citizens, then the school is public. Otherwise, it is private.

The actions of a public school and its officials are considered to be actions of the state and therefore are subject to the provisions of the 14th amendment while the actions of private schools are not. One might ask, then, how are federal laws and regulations sometimes made to apply to private schools which are private corporations — for example, the Buckley amendment pertainint to educational records of students or Title IX applying to sex discrimination by schools. The usual mechanism used to apply federal regulations to private schools and, for that matter, to public schools where a U.S. Constitutional issue is not at stake, is to say that any school wishing to receive federal funding must comply with this federal regulation. That is, for a school to not comply does not make the action illiegal. It simply means that federal funds cannot be obtained by that school.

For the remainder of this paper when the word "school" is used, I will mean a public school or a private school which receives some type of federal funding.

A school has the legal entity of a corporation. The authority to govern a school is vested in its governing board, which may delegate power to its officers, faculty, and students. The authority establishing a school, whether it be a constitution, statute, or a charter, specifies the powers, privileges, and duties of the school, but usually these are expressed in such broad, general terms that from time to time courts have been called upon to interpret these powers, privileges, and duties. The courts have generally held that schools have broad, general, inherent power subject to limitations specifically stated in their charters. The concept of "inherent" powers has the same coloration as common law. That is, if a school has a clear duty, it is presumed to have the necessary authority to carry out that duty even if there is no document expressly assigning such authority to this school. However, a school, in exercising its authority, must not violate the constitutionally protected rights of students or others. A school has broad power to determine the kind of education that it will offer, and it has the authority to establish regulations designed to accomplish its educational mission as it has defined it. It has the authority to establish educational standards for students, both academic and behavioral, and may discipline students in a manner designed to assist or require them to abide by the established educational standards.

A relatively recent legal concept that tends to limit the general and inherent authority of schools is the concept of "least restrictive environment" (Abeson, Bolick, & Hass, 1975; Mills v. Board of Education, 1972; Turnbull, 1975). This applies especially to special education programs. The concept of least restrictive environment means that the school must conduct its programs in such a way that the student is placed in the least restrictive environment commensurate with his educational needs and his capabilities. For example, a handicapped student in a wheelchair may not be placed in a segregated special education class when he has the ability to be a functioning member of a regular mathematics class. The burden of proof is on the school to show that the student cannot properly be educated in the regular educational programs before the school may segregate that student into special or restrictive educational programs and environments.

What is the Legal Basis for Determining the Relationship of a School with its Students?

This question has been and continues to be a confused issue. However, we are getting increasing clarification regarding the question from the courts. For years the doctrine of in loco parentis has held sway. The authority often cited for this doctrine is the 1913 Kentucky Supreme Court case of Gott v. Berea College (Moran, 1976). This doctrine held that a school had the same authority in relation to a student that a parent has in relation to a child. However, another doctrine which has enjoyed some popularity is that the relationship between a school and its students is a contractual relationship. The doctrine of contractual relationship has been reaffirmed in recent years as the appropriate doctrine for a private school and its students. However, regardless of doctrine that was followed, schools tended to arrive at a similar operational stance — the school has broad powers to adopt and enforce any regulation it deems reasonable and desirable, and students were obligated to comply with the school's regulations upon pain of immediate dismissal. Occasionally, but only occasionally, a voice could be heard challenging the doctrine of in loco parentis. In 1957 Law Professor Seavey expressed this challenge most eloquently

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when he stated, "Our sense of justice should be outraged by denial to students of the normal safeguards. It is shocking that officials of a state educational institution, which can function properly only if our freedoms are preserved, should not understand the elementary principles of fair play. It is equally shocking to find that a court supports them in denying to a student the protection given to a pickpocket."

Law, especially case law, tends to change very slowly. Thus, a sudden about-face in law is exceptional. But the *Dixon* v. *Alabama* (1960-61) case was such an exception. As late as 1959, access to public education beyond compulsory school age was considered a privilege, not a right. In that year a federal appeals court upheld this philosophy (*Steier* v. *New York State Commissioner*) by stating that Steier had been admitted, not as a matter of right, but as a matter of grace after having agreed to conform to the school's rules and regulations. The U.S. Supreme Court Court refused to hear the case on appeal, thus leaving the appeals court decision stand as the law on the land. One short year after the Steier decision, Federal Appeal Judge Rives struck down the doctrine of in loco parentis and thrust upon the public schools and colleges of this nation a new doctrine of "due process." The U.S. Supreme Court upheld the opinion of Judge Rives in the *Dixon* case by declining to hear the appeal. It was a whole new ballgame. The U.S. Constitution had invaded the public schools and colleges of this nation. Since the *Dixon* case involved a college student, it was thought by some at first that this would apply to public colleges and not to public schools. Not so. Many subsequent federal court rulings have clearly indicated that the *Dixon* decision was not restricted to college students (Bolneier, 1970 & 1976; Carter, Harris, & Brown, 1976).

Historically, minor children were considered to be the property (chattel) of parents and did not enjoy the rights and privileges of citizenship until they reached the age of majority. In 1969, the U.S. Supreme Court handed down its *Tinker* v. *Des Moines* decision in which it clearly indicated that a high school student who was a minor was a citizen of this nation with all the constitutionally protected rights of citizens. No longer could schools deny minor students the protection of the U.S. Constitution. However, even these two historic U.S. Supreme Court decisions (*Dixon* and Tinker) have not completely clarified the issue. There are still court decisions being made today which recognize the doctrine of in loco parentis in some instances, and it is not clear in what instances this doctrine is applicable and in what instances it is not. It would appear that the age of the minor student makes some differences as to what extent the school has supervisory authority similar to that of parents. The best interpretation that I can make of this situation as the moment is that schools must accord its students the usual prerogatives of citizenship while at the same time exercising the supervisory authority assigned to it by parents for educational purposes. Thus, the younger the student is, the more the school must exercise close supervision and protection, and as a student grows older and needs less parental type supervision and protection, the less authority the school would have to exercise such assigned authority (Moran, 1976).

Constitutionally Protected Rights of Students

As mentioned above, students have been declared citizens even though they are minors, and schools must not violate their constitutionally protected rights. What then are some of these constitutionally protected rights.

One is freedom of and from religion. This applies to public schools only. A public school must do nothing to favor religion or to be hostile to religion. A school may include in its curriculum the study of religion, but nothing in such study may include advocacy for or against religion or any particular religious doctrine (Jones, 1973).

Freedom of speech is another right. Speech may be oral, written, or symbolic. A school may regulate the time and place and manner in which the students may exercise their freedom of speech, but they may not regulate or censor the content of the speech. (Eisner v. Stamford, 1971; Flygare, 1977; Johnson, 1972; Phay, 1975; Phay & Rogister, 1974; Spencer, 1975; Stern & Webster, 1973). If students wish to wear black armbands to protest the war in Viet Nam, the school may not prohibit this symbolic speech unless it can make a clear showing that the wearing of black armbands would result in clear and imminent danger of violence and disruption of the school program. In such an instance, the burden of proof is on the school and mere suspicion that disruption might occur is not sufficient grounds to prohibit such symbolic speech.

Currently there is considerable flap about the distribution of non-school literature on school premises by students. This non-school literature may have been prepared by students on campus or off. The first amendment guarantee of free speech includes the right to distribute literature that is unpopular or offensive but that right is not absolute. A school may prohibit distribution of written material that is obscene or libelous or contains "fighting words" or is "directed to incite or produce imminent lawless actions and likely to incite lawless actions." Determining what is "obscene" and what is not seems to be the most difficult problem that schools are having at the moment. Although obscene material is not protected by the first amendment, the problem is to define what is obscene. The courts have tended to accept a variable definition of obscenity depending upon the age and maturity of the student body. Thus, what might be considered as not obscene for adults, is possibly classifiable as obscene for young children. However, even regarding minors, the determination of permissible censorship must be premised on a rational finding of harmfulness to the group in question. Mere contention that such material violates the "conventions of decency" is not an acceptable basis for censorship. Phay (1975) in discussing this issue concluded as follows: "These cases make clear that except for hard-core pornography, written student materials that may be in extremely poor taste and clearly violate the "conventions of decency" are not obscene in a legal sense. Like long hair on male students, it is extremely difficult, if not impossible, for schools, school administrators, or school boards to prohibit. In my judgment, school officials are wasting their time in attempting to adopt written school board regulations prohibiting possession or distribution of obscene literature."

Another form of freedom of speech that has caused schools difficulty is the use of school facilities by speakers invited by student groups, or the use of school facilities by community groups. The courts have been quite clear in ruling that the school may not censor whom students choose to hear (Brooks v. Auburn University, 1969). That is, if the school permits students to invite outside speakers to speak on campus to their group, they must do so without retaining the authority to determine who will be permitted to speak on what topic. Also, if the school allows one non-school community group to use school facilities for their activities, they may not deny another non-school community group use of the school facilities under the same provisions simply because they don't like who is going to be on the program or what the topic of their program is (East Meadow Community Concert Association v. Board of Education, 1966).

Another right of students is freedom of assembly and freedom to present grievances. Often this takes the place of demonstrations and petitions. The students have a right of freedom of assembly but the school has no obligation to provide them physical space in which to assemble. The school has the authority to determine how its facilities will be used and for what purpose. If a group of students wants to assemble and discuss the Middle East situation, they have a right to do so. But the school has no duty to provide them a place to do so.

The student's right to freedom from unreasonable search and seizure is posing problems in many schools today. Many of these problems are occurring because school officials confuse the educational authority and duty of schools with the authority and duty of police officers (Hodgins, 1976; Nedurian, 1972; Weltering, 1971). We have fairly good guidelines from court rulings on this and they should be used. Schools are licensed to practice education and no more. A school may conduct a search and seize contraband material if there is reasonable cause to believe that a school regulation has been violated. It has no authority to search or seize in an attempt to enforce the law, nor may the school loan its authority to search and seize in the process of enforcing school regulations to police officers for their purpose of enforcement of law. If a police officer wishes to search a student on school premises in regard to suspected law violation, they are bound by the same rules of search and seisure as apply anywhere else in the community. Normally this requires obtaining a search warrant before such search can be made. Schools should avoid being party to an illegal search by police officers, not only because of the ethics involved, but because of the monetary liability they might incur. The Wood v. Strickland (1975) case makes it clear that school officials who violate a student's constitutional rights may be held liable for monetary damages. This applies whether the school official knowingly violates the student's rights or if he should have known. Students should be informed of the fact that contraband material may be seized by a police officer without a search warrant if that material is in plain view.

Students have a right to be free from schools' use of improper classification (Bryson, 1975; Chase, 1976; Francis, 1975; Greeson & Carter, 1976; Griggs v. Duke Power Company, 1971; McCarthy, 1976; Tractonberg & Jacoby, 1977). This many-faceted right is an outgrowth of the 14th amendment, which guarantees citizens equal protection of the law. Only if the school can show that students may be classified in a legally acceptable way can they treat different groups of students differently. For example, it is quite acceptable to have a different curriculum for second grade and for the 12th grade. On the other hand, there are certain classifications that are either illegal or suspect. Illegal classification includes race, sex, national origin, and physical handicap.

School Rules and Regulations

Schools have the authority to establish regulations designed to achieve its educational mission, to require students to abide by these regulations, and to discipline students who fail or refuse to abide by them. These regulations must be made known to the student ahead of time in such a manner that the student has a reasonable opportunity to know what is expected of him. Rules may not be invoked after the fact. Also, rules and regulations cannot be so overly broad or vague that different students would interpret them in different fashions. In disciplining students in attempt to force compliance with school regulations, the school must afford the student due process (General Order..., 1968; Phay, 1975; Phay & Cummings, 1970; Reutter, 1975). This due process requirement also stems from the 14th amendment which specifies that the student may not be deprived of his rights without due process of law.

So what is due process? It is not a fixed set of regulations or procedures. It is in all instances to be interpreted as "fair play under the circumstances." In student discipline matters, it means that the student must be notified of the school regulation he is charged with having violated. He must be provided with the information which has led to this charge of violation, and he must be given a fair and objective hearing regarding the charge with opportunity to attempt to refute the evidence presented by the school. Thus, notice, charge, and hearing are the minimum essentials of due process if the result of such a hearing might lead to the separation of the student from school, even for a relatively short period of time. Also, any decision to discipline a student after a hearing must be based on sufficient evidence which has been presented in the hearing.

Educational Records of Students

For years hassles have developed concerning who has access to and control over the content of a student's educational record. These hassles have resulted in Congress passing a law entitled the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act of 1974, more familiarly referred to as the Buckley Amendment. It is mandatory that counselors and other educators be aware of the provisions of this law since it applies to almost every educational institution in this nation. This law applies to any school which receives funds under the administrative authority of the U.S. Commissioner of Education. Such funds may come to the school directly through grants and contracts, or indirectly through funds provided the students and paid to the school by the student for educational purposes. First a few definitions. A person, even though he has been admitted to a school, is not considered a student until he actually begins attending classes. The word "student" refers to a person enrolled in an elementary or secondary school who has not yet reached the age of 18. An "eligible student" is a student who is enrolled in secondary education and who has reached the age of 18 or any student enrolled in a post-secondary educational institution. These distinctions are important as we shall see later.

The purposes of this act are to ensure that parents of students and eligible students themselves have access to and opportunity to review the student's educational records and to have an opportunity to challenge the content of the record when it is believed that the record may be inaccurate, misleading, or a violation of the student's right of privacy. An additional purpose is to prevent access to, or disclosure of, the student's educational record to anyone other than the parent or eligible student unless the parent or eligible student has given written consent to such access or disclosure. Thus, this touches directly on what teachers and counselors have often asked for — confidentiality of student records (Burgum & Anderson, 1975; Callis, 1976; Nolte & Kardokus, 1976; St. John & Walder, 1976; N.E.A., 1975).

Distinction must be made as to what constitutes the educational record. Educational record means those records which are directly related to the student and his educational progress and are maintained by the school. However, certain kinds of records that a school may maintain about a student are excluded from the definition of educational record. First is directory information. This is the usual kind of demographic information such as the student's name, his address, what program he may be enrolled in, and similar type of information. The school must determine what it will declare as directory information and notify parents or eligible students as to its intent. Any parent or eligible student then has the opportunity to have any or all of the directory information concerning that individual student deleted from the directory. The directory information, after any such deletions, may be made available to the public.

Another kind of information that is excluded from the educational record are records maintained by teachers, administrators, counselors, and other educational personnel provided the information in question is in the sole possession of that educator and is not accessible to, or revealed to any other individual, except a temporary substitute for that specific individual educator. This means that any record of testing or counseling generated by the counselor and shared with another counselor or educator becomes part of the educational record and subject to all provisions thereto. If the counselor wishes to keep his counseling record confidential, he may not share it with or make it available to anyone else under any reason or for any purpose. He may not leave the record with the institution if he leaves the employment of that institution. Thus, a counselor may not merge his counseling records with those of other counselors or include them in the student's general " permanent folder" if he wishes them to be held in confidence. At the college level only, the records of a physician, psychologist, psychiatrist, or a similar professional, which are generated for and used exclusively for treatment of the student, are excluded from the educational record. Note that this does not apply to the counselor in the elementary or secondary school.

In addition to the management and maintanance of the record of the counseling process itself, there is another facet of this act that may cause a counselor some trouble. This has to do with letters of recommendation, whether they be in connection with a student's application for admission to college or application for employment. Unless the student waives his right to see a letter of recommendation, the student has a right to see any letters recommendation that the counselor has written. A school may not require a student to waive his right to see a letter or recommendation. However, the individual requested to write the recommendation may request a student to waive this right, and a counselor may refuse to write a letter of recommendation unless a waiver is given provided writing of letters of recommendation are not a regular part of the counselor's expected duties.

A parent or eligible student has a right to inspect the student's educational record and to challenge the content thereof. If the holder of the record agrees with the challenge, a change can be made in a form that is acceptable to the eligible student or the parent. If this informal agreement is not reached, the parent or the eligible student has a right to a formal hearing in which the challenge is presented. Even then, if the decision at the hearing is against the eligible student or the parent, the eligible student or the parent has the right to insert his challenge into the educational record.

The content of the educational record is at the discretion of the school. The school has a right to remove any portion of the educational record that it pleases at any time except when a record is under challenge. That is, material may be entered into the educational record for a period of time after which it may be deleted.

On the other side of the coin, the school is forbidden to make the educational record of a student available to anyone except with written permission of the parent or the eligible student. There are certain exceptions to this. Other school professional personnel, on a need-to-know basis, may have access to the student's educational record. Certain inspection and accrediting agencies have a right of access to the educational record of students on a need-to-know basis without permission from parent or the eligible student. Also, educational records may be used for research without permission of the parent or eligible student provided that personally identifying data are not made public when the results of such research are made public.

Schools may not make educational records of students available without the permission of parent or eligible student to community social agencies, juvenile officers, police, or any other non-school agency. Of course, educational records are not immune to subpoena by a court of law.

These are the highlights of the Buckley Amendment. However, the counselor is warned to obtain a copy of the regulations pertaining to this act and to become completely familiar with them.

Counseling Records of Student Clients

In order to abide by the provisions of the Buckley Amendment mentioned above and the usual specifications in codes of professional ethics for counselors and related personnel, it is recommended quite strongly that counselors maintain their records of contact with student clients as a private, personal set of records which are shared with no one and, in the event the counselor leaves the employ of a given school, that he takes such records with him. It is recognized that the policies of some schools will not permit this. In such an event, the counselor must realize that his counseling records are legally a part of the educational record and as such are subject to inspection by parents or eligible students. In this event, the counselor might be inclined to keep minimal or no records. This would be a mistake, because well-kept records, adequately documented, are probably the single best defense against malpractice suits. A practice that some counselors have used from time to time is to have the client read casenotes of the previous interview as the counseling progresses. This would provide a safeguard against misunderstanding between the client and the counselor as to what has gone on and to what is being attempted.

The literature of counseling is riddled with references to confidentiality of communication. Sometimes this is confused with privileged communication. Some clarification of these concepts may be desirable. First, it might be well to determine when a student becomes a client in the professional ethics and legal sense of the word. Many of the school counselor's duties are not those that could be labeled duties of a professional counselor, but rather those of a general educator. A student becomes a client in a professional and legal sense when the counselor assumes a duty to the student to provide a counseling service. The student is not a client until the counselor does assume some such duty. That is, he agrees to accept the student as a client for counseling.

All professional codes of ethics pertaining to counseling specify that the communication between counselor and client is to be confidential. This means that the counselor agrees to accept the communication from the client in confidence and to maintain that confidence up to but not including a subpoena to testify in a court of law. It should be recognized at this point that technically there are two kinds of confidentiality that a counselor may deal with. In the first place, it is not absolutely mandatory that a counselor agree to accept a communication from a client in confidence. Professional ethics make possible such exceptions so long as there is clear understanding between counselor and client. The two kinds of confidentiality are (1) to the counselor individually, or (2) to the counseling staff as a unit. The latter is typical, for when the counseling records are available to other counselors of the same staff and are left with the counseling office in the event that the counselor leaves, a communication is not to the counselor individually but to the counseling staff as a unit. Only if the counseling record is not available to anyone except the counselor, and, in the event that he leaves the employ of that school, the records go with the counselor can the communication be considered to be to the counselor as an individual. This should be clarified in the counselor's own mind and with his administrators and colleagues before he assumes duties as a counselor.

Once the kind of confidentiality to be used is chosen, the counselor is bound by that, not only by professional ethics, but by the legal concept of invasion of personal privacy. If the counselor agrees to accept a communication in confidence, he is legally bound to maintain that until released by the client or is subpoenaed by a court. If he violates this agreement, the client has the perfect right to sue him for invasion of personal privacy. Defamation of character or similar negative results of such breach of confidence need not be proved; that the counselor has broken the agreement is a basis of a charge of invasion or personal privacy.

When, if ever, is a counselor justified in breaching the confidence of a client? There are certain extreme limits where it is possible that the counselor has a duty to breach a confidence in the interest of the welfare of the client or some other affected party. It is conceivable that during counseling a client might become temporarily incompetent to manage his affairs in a minimally acceptable and safe manner. Most authorities on this subject would then suggest that the counselor's duty then shifts to the "next of kin." Circumstances might differ as to who, at a given moment, would be classed as "next of kin." Immediately, it might be the director of the counseling service or perhaps the school principal. As quickly as possible it would move to the student's parents or other next of kin — whoever would normally assume responsibility for the student when the student becomes incapacitated. In other words, the counselor may not abandon his client when the client needs help most. The counselor would have a duty to get the client in the hands of the person who can provide him safety until he is able to cope for himself again.

There is one court decision that declared that the counselor has a duty to a person endangered by his client. This case arose in the University of California-Berkeley Student Health Service when the client of a staff psychologist threatened to murder his fiancee. The psychologist believed that this was quite possible and took action in accordance with what he felt was sound professional ethics. He notified his administrative superior and notified the police. The police apprehended the client and questioned him, then released him. At a later date, the client did in fact murder his fiancee, and the parents of the murdered fiancee sued the psychologist for malpractice, claiming he did not take the necessary action to protect the murdered one. Specifically, the parents thought that they should have been notified, since their daughter at that time was out of the country and could not be reached by the psychologist. The ruling of the state supreme court of California was to the effect that the psychologist had a duty to notify directly the endangered person so that she might take protective action and that the notification of police or anyone else except perhaps her parents fell short of the psychologist's duty. The court recognized that the psychologist in good faith had followed his professional ethics, but the court said professional ethics were faulty at this extreme point. If this decision becomes the law of the land, that is, is adopted by other court jurisdictions, then that places counselors and psychologists in a rather precarious position. If the counselor has made an accurate judgment, well and good. But, if he has made an inaccurate judgment, then his client may in turn sue the counselor for breach of confidentiality and perhaps even defamation of character.

A point that has some bearing on the concept of confidentiality of communication is that the counselor has the right of consultation with a fellow professional about his client without necessarily having to obtain permission of his client to do so. This right of consultation is available to the counselor provided his consultant agrees to the same ethical ground rules that the counselor is abiding by.

Now to privileged communication, which is a legal concept. English and American common law include the concept that any citizen appearing before the bar of justice has right of access to any other citizen who may have relevant information that might assist the person to achieve justice. That is, you or I do not have to face the bar of justice alone but have access to friends and neighbors and other citizens who may have relevant information pertaining to our case. The very fact that someone who has such information might find it unpleasant or disagreeable to come forth and testify is not sufficient grounds for them to refuse to testify. A few exceptions to this common law have been allowed by common law and now often by statute. One of the earliest exceptions to the common law is the husband-wife relationship. That is, a spouse is not required to testify against spouse. Wigmore, in his commentaries on evidence, has outlined the principles by which privileged communication should be granted. According to Wigmore, if each of these four principles is satisfied in the affirmative, privileged communication may be granted by the court. These principles are: (1) that the communication in question was in fact given in confidence; the label of confidence cannot be affixed after the fact; (2) that the confidential communication is necessary to the maintenance of the relationship; that is, the objective of the relationship cannot be obtained without the opportunity for confidential communication; (3) that the relationship involved must be one that society wishes to support and foster; marriage is one such relationship. However, there are relationships which would fall on this principle. Suppose that a small group of people had decided to plan a bank robbery. They in fact communicated in confidence, satisfying principle (1), confidential communication was necessary to the relationship, therefore, satisfying principle (2); however, it would fall on principle (3) because bank-robbing is not a kind of relationship that society wishes to support and foster. (4) This principle is a balancing act. The damage that would accrue to the relationship in question now and in the future must be greater than the damage that would occur in failure to obtain justice in the individual case before the bar at the moment. For example, we might have a situation in which it is absolutely essential to have a testimony of a husband to prove a charge against the wife who is accused of some crime. There is no way that justice can be obtained without the husband's testimony. However, according to common law, the damage that would occur to the institution of marriage would be so great if the husband is required to testify that it is better to fail to achieve justice in this individual case involving the wife than to render irreparable damage to the institution of marriage. In more recent years, privileged communication has been extended, either by statute or courtesy of the court, to a few other relationships in addition to marriage. These vary somewhat from state to state, but they may include lawyer-client, physician-patient, priest-parishioner, and more recently, psychologist-client. It is entirely possible, but not probable, that a court might extend privileged communication to the school counselor and client. Don't count on it!

As of 1975, nine states provided by statute privileged communication for the teacher-student and the counselor-student client relationship (Burgum & Anderson, 1975). In the absence of privileged communication, not only may the counselor be subpoenaed to testify in the court, his counseling records may be subpoenaed also. It matters not whether these records are part of the educational record of the student or part of the individual counseling record which the counselor and only the counselor has access to.

Group counseling poses a special problem in relation to confidential communication and privileged communication. Even if the client-counselor relationship on a one-to-one basis were to be considered a privileged communication situation, it is highly doubtful in the absence of statutory law that the same counselor counseling with a group would be considered to come under the privileged communication concept. Because of this, the counselor, in starting a counseling group, might well extract agreement from all participants that the communication will be held in confidence by all in the group, not just by the counselor. If such a pledge is extracted by by counselor, particularly if it is in writing, then if one member of the group violates a confidence, another member of the group might have a basis for legal action against the client who made the revelation. Such legal action would fall under the concept of invasion of personal privacy. I know of no cases dealing with this, nor do I know of any consistent practices which require such a signed agreement from all group counseling participants. Nonetheless, it seems to me that it would be a wise and prudent procedure to follow routinely.

Standards of Professional Practice by School Counselors

Malpractice suits against professional practitioners have reached epidemic proportions in the last several years, especially against medical practitioners. The more school counselors become recognized as professional practitioners, the more they are in danger of being the object of a malpractice suit in a civil court. Civil liability means that one can be sued for not doing right, or for doing wrong to his client. When a counselor accepts a client for counseling, he is expected to abide by legal standards of care in dealing with his client. Therefore, it is of extreme importance to make clear when a student becomes a client and when a student is not a client, as far as the counselor is concerned. Civil liability is covered by the laws of tort. The word "tort" means a wrong which legal action is designed to set right. It is a legal wrong against the person, property, or reputatuon of the client. (This discussion of the civil liability of the school counselor is based upon Burgum and Anderson (1975). For a counselor to be legally liable for negligence or malpractice in connection with a client, three conditions must exist: (1) A duty must be owed by the counselor to the client. (2) That duty must be breached. (3) There must be a causal link between the breach and the client's injury. First, a school counselor has a general duty to students in his role as a member of the professional education staff of the school. Many liability questions rise out of situations where it is alleged that the student was injured because a teacher/educator failed to supervise a student properly. The counselor should familiarize himself with traditional school law that deals with the supervision of students by the professional staff. The younger the student, or the more disturbed or incapacitated the student becomes, the greater the duty of the professional staff. The younger the student, or the more disturbed or incapacitated the student becomes, the greater the duty of the professional staff to supervise him.

In determining a counselor's responsibility for counseling as such, we must first be clear as to when a student becomes a client. All students are not clients just because they are students. The counselor must assume an obligation to provide counseling to the student before the student becomes a client. Until that time, the counselor has no counseling duty toward the student. A counselor cannot be held liable for an unwise and damaging career choice by a student who has never consulted the counselor. On the contrary, it is possible that the counselor might be held liable for the unwise and damaging career choice if that choice had been made in consultation with the counselor and directly resulted from counseling.

The school counselor needs to be aware of the "good Samaritan" concept as it most clearly is apparent in the practice of medicine. For example, if a physician, driving down the highway, sees a car accident and sees an individual in the accident is injured and sees that he could use his professional skill to, say, stop a bleeding artery, he has no obligation to do so, that is, no duty to stop and help the injured person. However, if he does stop and attempt to help, he assumes a duty to the injured one, and can be held legally liable for his professional practice. Many policemen, physicians, et al, today will refuse to attempt to help persons in emergencies without being requested to do so unless there is a state law (good Samaritan law) which holds them immune to malprace suits in such instances.

When does a counselor breach his duty? The counselor is expected to conduct his counseling with the skill and care that any reasonable and prudent counselor with similar training and experience would do. What is reasonable and prudent practice under the circumstances is determined by the profession, not by the individual. Thus, a counselor who does not believe in using tests in making a psychological assessment, fails to detect a serious adjustment problem which results in injury to the client, may well be found guilty of malpractice if the majority of his counselor peers in his geographic area or his profession nationally say that any reasonable and prudent counselor would have used tests in that circumstance. The standards of acceptable practice (and therefore of malpractice) are set by the profession, not by the individual practitioner. To say that "I don't believe in using that procedure" is no defense against malpractice if the profession says that the procedure should have been used in the circumstance in question.

Within certain limits, parents have a right to rear their children as they please and school counselors should be very wary of usurping this parental prerogative especially when they are convinced that the parents are wrong. Parents have the prime responsibility for the moral and ethical development of their children and counselors may not interfere or superimpose their moral and ethical values on clients without parental consent. In these days of changing sexual mores, the counselor could easily find himself being charged with contributing to the delinquency of a minor if he advises sexual behavior contrary to parents' morals and values.

Another area that poses potential legal trouble for the counselor is when a client has committed a crime (felony). The counselor must exercise care to avoid becoming an accessory to the crime after the fact. Three conditions must exist to render a counselor an accessory to a crime committed by a client—(1) the client must have already committed a felony; (2) the counselor must know that the client has committed the felony; and (3) the counselor must do something to harbor or assist the felon. The mere knowledge that the client has committed a crime does not make the counselor an accessory; the counselor must engage in some act that might assist the client in being a fugitive from the law. Acts that probably would make the counselor an accessory are helping the client to hide from the police, lending him money, offering transportation, blocking the path of police, and giving false information to mislead the police.

"Informed consent" is a concept that has developed and expanded in recent years in the practice of medicine. Consent given by a signature to a document containing complex medical terminology which the patient doesn't understand is no longer adequate. The physician must explain to the patient in language and concepts the patient can understand what treatment is being recommended and what the probable outcome will be including any negative side effects. Then the patient must consent to the treatment before the physician may commence. If "informed consent" becomes mandated as part of counseling practice, as it probably will in the foreseeable future, it will cause major changes. First, the counselor will be required to make some fairly lucid diagnostic formulation (which is rare in counseling practice today). Then, he will have to choose the treatment modality designed to effect the desired result. This, of course, will require much more research by the profession than now exists. Thus, the client will have to be informed of what the counselor sees the problem to be, what treatment is recommended, and the probable outcome, before counseling begins. What a change from typical counseling practice today! And what a change in the research thrust of the profession!

School counselors are frequently asked to make recommendations — orally or in writing — to colleges and employers regarding students. Such requests may come from the student or from the employer or the college. This can become the basis of charges of slander, libel, or defamation of character. The counselor needs to be aware of this possibility and act to avoid being guilty of such charges. As a general rule, the counselor should insist that the student validate such requests even if the college or employer initiates the request. Then, in making recommendations, the counselor should stick to the facts and avoid unfounded speculations. The communication should be made in good faith and from good motives, being neither punitive or vindictive. Statements should be limited in scope to the purpose of the specific recommendation. The recommendation should be transmitted to the proper parties and only to them. To discuss students/clients in the teachers' lounge, at a cocktail party, or with friends and neighbors over a bridge game is not only unethical but might well lead to monetary damages for slander and/or malpractice.

A new legal trap in which a counselor might fall has to do with the new copyright law that goes into effect January 1, 1978. Although it is not possible at this time to specify precisely what is permitted and prescribed under this new law, the National Education Association plans to issue a handbook soon on this topic for use by educators. However, it is clear that a counselor may not make copies of a published test answer sheet and use them in lieu of purchasing answer sheets. This also applies to consumable test booklets and workbooks such as career exploration workbooks (Monk, 1977; Robinson, 1977).

PROBLEM AREAS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Problem 1. It should be abundantly clear from the content of this paper so far that there is a considerable body of law that directly impinges on the practice of counseling and guidance in schools. It is equally abundantly clear that counselors and counselor educators are not conversant with this body of law. A perusal of the professional journals (APGA journals, et al) reveal almost no articles dealing with this body of law. An examination of representative college catalogs reveal very few courses available to counselors on this topic. A discussion with a few lawyers and law professors supports the suspicion that few lawyers in practice and few law professors specialize in school law and fewer still in the law pertaining to counseling and guidance.

Although law and ethics are often distinct, there is some overlap of content. Counselors and counselor educators tend to be more knowledgeable about professional ethics than they are about the law of counseling and guidance. Yet, there is much to be desired in the counselor's working knowledge of what constitutes ethical practice in vivo as opposed to in the abstract.

Recommendations. Immediate action needs to be taken to eradicate the deficiency in knowledge by practicing school counselors and counselor educators of the law and ethics of counseling and guidance. This could be done by a series of actions — (1) USOE should commission a group composed of knowledgeable persons including counselor educators and lawyers to develop, probably in the form of a book or a monograph series, instructional material which would be comprehensive in nature and scope and which would form a basis for the establishment of graduate courses in the law and ethics of counseling and guidance and which could also be the basis of a series of in-service workshops. I would imagine that NOLPE (National Organization of Legal Problems in Education) might be interested in being heavily involved in such an enterprise. Also, several universities have units that could contribute to this enterprise — University of Georgia, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Rutgers University, Duke University, and others. The American Bar Association should be consulted regarding this project. (The Missouri Bar Association initiated and funded a similar project about six years ago to train practicing classroom teachers to teach elementary and secondary students what they need to know about law in order to be effective citizens.((2) Once these instructional materials are developed, APGA and USOE should initiate and conduct a series of regional and national workshops on the law and ethics of counseling and guidance for counselor educators and state supervisors of guidance. Workshop participants should be teams of counselor educators and state supervisors of guidance who would agree, upon completion of the workshop series, to attempt to install a course on the law and ethics of counseling and guidance into the counselor education programs that they are associated with and to conduct state workshops on the topic for practicing school counselors. Workshop participants might also include school law specialists in state departments of education and representatives of the state attorney general's office. (3) Some appropriate mechanism should be created to enable school counselors to keep up to date on new developments in the law of counseling and guidance. This could be done in this fashion — have USOE commission NOLPE to provide APGA journal editors and editors of state guidance journals with copy for a regular column devoted to "the law of counseling and guidance up-date."

Problem 2. Each of the 50 states now have statutes which provide for licensing or certification of psychologists directed primarily to the private practice of psychology. All or almost all of these state statutes provide for privileged communication between psychologist and client. These statutes exempt school counselors from the licensing/certification requirements but at the same time does not extend the statutory provisions of privileged communication to school counselor-psychologist-client relationship.

Recommendation. USOE and APGA should develop a model statute to provide privileged communication to the school counselor/psychologist-client relationship. The North Dakota statute is a good example of such a statute. Once such a model statute is developed, APGA and USOE should urge state directors of guidance and state guidance associations to work for passage of such a statute in their states.

Problem 3. The needed distinction between, and quality standards for, school counseling records and the educational record of students are not well conceptualized by school counselors. Although the Buckley Amendment has gone far to strengthen the professional ethics of school counseling, it has at the same time created confusion regarding school counseling records. As a result thereof, there has developed undesirable practices involving inadequate school counseling records and the rendering of school counselor's records unavailable to fellow counselors working in the same school and to successors of school counselors who leave or retire.

Recommendation. APGA should establish a task force to study this problem to determine if guidelines can be developed which will permit school counselors to develop and maintain counseling records which are in keeping with proper standards of professional practice and the Buckley Amendment, and, if it is found that this is impossible, develop recommendations for amending the Buckley Amendment so as to extend to school counselors/psychologists the same provisions for excluding from the definition of educational records the counseling records in a manner similar to that provided at the higher education level for physicians, psychologists, et al.

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The Relationship of Counselors to School Principals

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No one person is more important to the success of a school guidance program than the building principal. This has become increasingly apparent with the advent of the accountability movement and its accompanying demand for improved management of elementary and secondary schools. More than ever before, principals are both concerned about and actively engaged in the administration of guidance services in their schools. Thus, the ability of counselors to establish an effective working relationship with their principal is a factor of increasing importance.

Under the banner of "accountability" students, parents, and taxpayers in general are rallying in support of more valid goals, clearly stated objectives, and effective delivery systems for all educational activities. Guidance services have not been exempted from scrutiny. Many questions have been raised. How is guidance related to learning and instruction? What is the role of the counselor? The teacher? The principal? Do guidance services really make a difference? If so, at what cost?

THE GUIDANCE LEADERSHIP ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL

The press for better management of guidance programs is being felt most keenly by building principals for it is they who are ultimately responsible for the efficiency and effectiveness of every educational program in their school. Under such circumstances, it is not surprising that the interest and participation of principals in their guidance programs is increasing and that school counselors are becoming more aware of the fact that the building principal is the key person to their own success as well as that of the program. This is because the principal is the one who is more responsible for:

1. Integrating the guidance program with all other programs and activities of the school, insuring an effective balance of priorities.
2. Acquiring sufficient financial support for counseling and other guidance services.
4. Selecting qualified competent people to fill counseling positions.
5. Providing suitable physical facilities for guidance services offered to both students and their parents.
6. Projecting future needs and encouraging the development of new delivery systems.
7. Encouraging the development of in-service training programs for counselors and other guidance staff.

8. Creating a system of continuous evaluation of guidance services.
9. Building and preserving the good image of the guidance program through both internal and external channels of communication with students, staff, parents and the public at large.

Without active leadership by the principal, there is only a small chance that a school's guidance program will become as fully developed and productive as is possible. However, providing personal leadership places a heavy burden on the demand for the principal's time, a demand often impossible to meet. Although every elementary and secondary school has a guidance function to perform, only a relatively small portion has a director of guidance or a coordinator other than the principal. The result in the past has often been to leave the guidance function unattended, the extent to and means by which guidance services are provided being left to the discretion of individual teachers and counselors. This practice is rapidly disappearing.

Most school principals now believe that strong leadership on their part is both imperative and a legitimate position for them to take. Since guidance is an integral part of the primary aim of the school — to help each student reach the highest level of his or her potential — it is viewed as being related, in a significant way, to each of the three basic aspects of the role of a building principal — supervision of building operation, leadership and evaluation of educational programs, and assignment of staff in the way most likely to accomplish all goals within a system of priorities determined by the governing board. The leadership role of the principal was recently restated by The National Association of Secondary School Principals in the following way.[1]

> School management on a day-by-day basis is the responsibility of the school principal and immediate assistants. The principalship entails important and significant leadership responsibilities as well. The Association believes that a principal must do more than organize and administer resources, make decisions, and evaluate school productivity. The principal must also initiate the consideration of new goals, implement promising new professional practices, and organize programs of inservice education for staff. Principals are spokespersons and public symbols for their schools as well. The qualities exhibited by the principal as a person and as a professional have a significant impact upon the character of the school.

PRESSURES FOR CHANGES IN GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING

Principals are not only aware of their overall leadership responsibility, but many now feel guidance is the area in which it is most urgently needed. In the document mentioned earlier, NASSP pointed out:[2]

> The Association is convinced that the delivery of guidance services to students can be improved significantly. Expectations for counselors and other school personnel must be clarified, and

> the organization of guidance services must be recast and strengthened... improvement in this area of service to youth is central to a quality secondary school program and requires careful attention.

Thus, in addition to the need for better coordination of present day guidance services, administrators also see the need for fundamental changes in both the form of guidance in elementary and secondary schools and in the role of counselors. Strong societal forces are at work giving strength to the pressures for change, including:

1. A decline in enrollments with a subsequent decrease in the demand for new counselors and in the need to retain those currently employed.
2. The back-to-the-basics movement causing a shift in priorities within educational systems from social development goals to those viewed as more academic in nature.
3. Accountability and the demand for better management of school programs, including the development of new delivery systems.
4. The growing proportion of students with severe social and/or emotional problems that require attention before adequate learning can take place.
5. Financial distress resulting from inflation and a growing reluctance on the part of many to increase taxes in support of schools.
6. The tendency for the "adversary relationship" in school negotiation practices to widen the gulf between administrators and their staffs.

PRINCIPAL-COUNSELOR CONFLICT

School administrators today are under considerable pressure to show that counselors are an important part of a good educational program. Student services personnel are usually high on the list of possible cutbacks during periods of financial distress. Conditions being what they are, it is now more essential than ever that principals and counselors have the kind of professional relationship which makes it possible for them to work together in harmony and close cooperation. And yet, there are antipathetic forces within the basis structure of both elementary and secondary schools in the United States which constantly work against the achievement of such a partnership. In fact, it is almost natural in the present system that principals and counselors should feel some antagonism toward each other. Unattended, this tension, though the fault of neither, often develops into open conflict.

Not all principals and counselors feel discomfort in their relationship to the same degree. Some hardly feel it at all. A few deny that conflict even exists, at least not in their school. Others are nearly overcome by it.

No doubt there are many schools where the principal has an excellent working relationship with his or her counselors. However, tension between the two groups is so common both agree that it does occur and have expressed, in one form or other, a growing concern about the need to eliminate this long-standing condition. Only a few are doing something specific about it.

Communication between the two groups is not good. It is quite common for each to engage in blaming the other. On the surface, it may sometimes appear that neither has sufficient understanding of the true function and purposes of an elementary, middle or high school guidance program to participate in a productive dialogue. Of course, that is not generally true. Each is aware that the other has unique training which qualifies him to carry out certain duties in the guidance program. And yet, the strain continues to exist.

FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO POOR RELATIONSHIPS

Lack of knowledge about counseling and guidance does not appear to be the only factor contributing to principal-counselor conflict. This is certainly not true for counselors, but neither is it so for principals, many of whom are former counselors. The crux of the problem is much more subtle and complex. This being so, a deeper understanding of the dilemma than currently exists among most principals and counselors is needed in order to deal with it effectively.

For instance, Hart and Prince found in a study of the perceptions of counselor role held by secondary school principals and counselor educators that the conflict is real — i.e., school counselors are taught many role philosophies and behaviors that are in conflict with the expectations of their principals. More important is the fact that principals in the study who had training and experience as a school counselor were as likely to disagree with counselor educators on the role definition of counselors as those with little or no counselor training and no counselor experience.[3] This suggests that when a counselor becomes a principal his or her perception of ideal counselor role is likely to change.

Other more recent studies point out additional factors that contribute to dissension between principals and counselors. One such ingredient centers around the question: "Who shall define the role of the counselor?" In assigning staff, the principal is usually given the right to make, within reasonable limits, whatever arrangements conditions call for. As often happens, certain staff members may be assigned more than one role to perform — e.g., teacher and administrator, teacher and counselor, or counselor and administrator. Multiple roles are less likely to be specifically assigned to teachers mainly because their duties are more precisely defined through the negotiating process commonly used today. Counselors, on the other hand, have traditionally waivered in the assertion of their role — sometimes accepting teaching responsibilities and sometimes administrative assignments, depending upon personal preference.

As a result, they often find themselves spending as much time in either the instructional or administrative function of the school as they do in the area of guidance. In fact, it is not unusual for some counselors to divide their time among all three functions of a school, giving rise to the popular complaint they are expected "to be all things to all people."

The "utility back" concept is by no means popular with counselors, but when their role is defined primarily by the principal, one should not be surprised to find it broad and loosely outlined. Most principals see their own job description the same way. Given the opportunity, they tend to define the role of their counselors according to the perception they have of their job — i.e., define it in their own image. Tension is reduced for the principal by this approach, but increased for the counselors.

For them to permit this to happen is not difficult to understand when one remembers that most counselors neither feel their positions are now secure nor have they ever been. It is the view of most that their positions are only secure when they are held in esteem by the principal and that they gain his support by meeting his expectations. Those who see it this way are inclined to do whatever the principal tells them and attempt to suppress, as best they can, their resentment. The uncomfortable outcome works against the development of a desirable working relationship between them.

On the other hand, for counselors to insist — which they often do — that their duties must be purely guidance in nature can also contribute to the conflict. The title counselor iteslf sometimes causes resentment among other members of the staff. Since it is widely agreed that the guidance function is carried out most effectively when all subject matter and school activities are involved, most everyone associated with the school expects to have a role in it. Counseling is not seen as an activity restricted only to counselors. Most principals are quite convinced of this.[4]

> Obviously, the role and function of the counselor is unclear and limited. A school's guidance program should be a team effort of the total school. Teachers, administrators, parents, coaches, paraprofessionals, nurses, peers, and community personnel all can assist at appropriate times with the counseling and advising process. All can assist individual students to reach adulthood.

This position of school principals has been continually substantiated through documentation and research. John Geisler reported that most of the Michigan secondary school principals who were asked in a recent survey expressed the opinion that major counseling activities should be a shared responsibility.[5] Scott D. Thomson, Deputy Executive Director of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, expressed the concern of principals even more succinctly when he said: "The counseling resources for students should be schoolwide, even communitywide. In short, counseling services are too comprehensive to be left to the counselors alone."[6] Thus, the degree to which their title suggests that counselors only counsel, and that all counseling is to be done by counselors, causes consternation, if not outright resentment, among other members of the staff, including the principal.

Counselors who avoid administration are of special concern to principals because it is the building administrator who is held responsible for wise management of all programs in the school. To insure that each will be operated in an efficient and effective manner requires the administrative efforts of more than one person. In addition to help with the coordination of instructional programs and extra-curricular activities, assistance is also needed with the guidance program. In the latter case, the logical people to help the principal are the specialists in guidance, the counselors;

but frequently they either openly oppose the notion or enter into such tasks with little enthusiasm.

Sometimes their reluctance is caused by poor communication resulting from lack of agreement between the two on what constitutes a guidance program and the role of the counselor within it. That which principals call guidance, counselors may call administration — e.g., attendance, discipline, scheduling and student-parent orientation activities. Communication becomes even more difficult when clerical duties are discussed. Opposition by counselors to clerical responsibilities often appears to others as unwillingness to participate in any aspect of administration, even that which is part of the guidance program itself.

When resistance to administrative duties is not easily overcome, principals sometimes feel they must insist. In order to explain this action they frequently base it on their right to define roles and assign staff and simply pronounce: "It is the job of the counselor." If counselor role is defined in this manner, counselors become discouraged, staff and students become confused, and the ability of administrators and counselors to work together as an effective guidance team is decreased.

The use of formal negotiating procedures between educational staffs and school boards has also created an atmosphere which nurtures conflict between counselors and administrators. As time goes by this becomes more apparent. Just as the communication distance has increased between teachers and administrators, the same is true between counselors and principals. In an effort to prevent this from happening, principals may unilaterally define the counselor's role, often unconsciously, to include a heavy emphasis on administrative duties. Although a job description for counselors which is similar to that of their principal may reduce tension because they are more congruent, the price for it is much too high in terms of the confusion it causes for teachers and students.

THE FUNDAMENTAL CAUSE OF PRINCIPAL-COUNSELOR CONFLICT

The four factors mentioned are really just contributing conditions relatively easy to identify and overcome if both parties are willing. And yet, the uncomfortable relationship between some principals and counselors continues even when all four are sufficiently controlled. This is because the basic underlying cause of principal-counselor conflict is deeply ingrained within the operation of the school itself. Recent data reveal that principal-counselor conflict stems mainly from a difference in priorities as each sees them. This, in turn, causes a difference between their perceptions of the relative importance of the guidance program and the counselor's role within it.

J. H. Hassard, examining the views of secondary school principals in Canada, concluded that there is a perceptible difference between the view of ideal counselor role held by principals and that held by counselors. In addition, he pointed out:[7]

> While there was considerable agreement as to the function of the counsellor there was much disagreement as to the school counselor's role. Principals saw the counsellor's role as largely

one of administrative support. Their perception was most often from the point of view of the institution while that of the counsellors sprang from the needs of individual students.

Conflicting views such as these are inevitable in schools that are organized in such a way that the main strategy for attaining their primary goal — individualized-personalized learning — is to utilize groups of students. Both the individual and the group are important components in the instructional system. Under such an arrangement inherent conflict is certain to exist.

Where the operation of the school centers around classrooms with twenty or more students, the struggle to help each child reach the highest level of his or her potential is a never ending one. In order to facilitate the efforts of teachers and administrators in this regard, counselors with specialized training in working with individuals and small groups of students were added to the staff. More often than not, this arrangement leaves the principal with the feeling that he must be responsible for the welfare of the student body because the counselor is mainly concerned about individual pupils.

This familiar picture is greatly distorted. Principals are as interested in the welfare of individual students as any other member of the staff. However, it is also true that building administrators are under constant pressure from taxpayers to design and operate good programs at low cost. Under this mandate it is not unexpected that most of the principal's attention is devoted to program planning, scheduling, attendance and discipline, all areas in which many counselors see themselves as having only a small role to play.

While counselors may spend most of their time providing, in one way or other, for individual differences, principals certainly give individual students full consideration in their planning and assessment of programs and activities. Thus, the major factor which seems to be working against the establishment of a good relationship between counselors and their principals is the different perception each has of the best response to a fundamental priority questions — i.e., which should be given preference in a given situation, the individual or the group?

BUILDING A GOOD RELATIONSHIP

Since it is not likely that this inherent clash between viewpoints will ever disappear from our elementary and secondary schools, it becomes then a matter of learning how to resolve the conflict rather than prevent it. Several ways are being tried. One way already mentioned is for principals to simply define the role of the counselors so there is maximum congruence with their own position. (I win — you lose.) The net effect is to create another administrator by eliminating a counselor position. Tension may be reduced, but so is the staff's ability to carry out its guidance function.

Another common approach is to turn the guidance function of the school over to the counselors in its entirety. (I lose — you win.) This is an unpopular notion which is currently under considerable attack because of the tendency for teachers and administrators to become separated from the guidance program and for the counselors to become a "fifth wheel" on the educational machine, easily discarded in times of economic hardship. Since it is not possible to have a good guidance program when only the counselors participate, complaints are soon voiced in the evaluations of both teachers and students. Some so strong as to suggest elimination of the counselors — believing that such a move would actually improve the guidance program.

A less common, but more realistic, way of handling the problem is to adapt to the condition by reducing discord and tension as much as possible. (I win — you also win.) Certainly this is the most difficult approach and requires considerable understanding, desire, and effort by both. Different functions lead to different roles; and they, in turn, often lead to different personality types that fill them. This, in itself, can retard the resolution of problems that emanate from poor interpersonal relationships.

As a preliminary step in the "everyone wins" approach, it is mutually agreed that both parties have as their top priority the best interests of the children they serve. The principal is not placed in the position of appearing to be "anti-student" while the counselor assumes the role of child advocate. From those extreme positions elimination of the conflict would be doomed from the start. Rather, the fundamental position taken is that each has a unique, but equally important, role to play in providing counseling services for all children enrolled in the school.

Having accepted this premise, the way is clear to seek agreement on the precise role to be played by each. Where conflict has existed for a long time, antagonistic feelings may be strong and difficult to overcome. When this is so, the first and most essential task is to depersonalize the problem — i.e., for both to become objective about it. Several familiar strategies for accomplishing this have been tried in the past. One has been to focus discussion in the beginning upon the strategy to be used in overcoming the difficulty rather than upon the faulty relationship itself. Another widely used approach is for both the counselor and the principal to temporarily abandon their primary roles and approach the problem from a different perspective — say that of students or their parents.

In similar situations, a third approach is regularly used with success. Attention, in this case, is directed to the unsatisfactory relationship that exists rather than the people who are party to it, principals and counselors. The latter approach has considerable potential for improving counselor-principal relationships because the underlying source of conflict (the welfare of the individual versus the welfare of the group) is an integral part of the school organization through no fault of either.

In the last analysis, the primary issue in the relationship is not one of "principals versus counselors," but rather, one of agreement on the priority position of the administrative and instructional functions of a school in relation to that of the guidance or pupil personnel function. Though each is inextricably tied to the other, there is a constant shifting of priorities among them because of circumstances that continually change from time to time, from student body to student body, and from system ro system.

The impact of a strained relationship is felt most where it touches on counselor role. It is here that principal-counselor conflict develops into its most prevalent form, clash over role definition. In elementary schools the magnitude of such conflict is comparatively small because everyone's highest priority goals usually include those for guidance. Thus, the roles for principals and counselors are much the same. At the junior high school level, the likelihood of conflict is decreasing as more are converted to middle schools emphasizing humanistic psychology in their approach. Strained relationships between principals and their counselors are found most often at the high school level for it is here that the effort to both individualize and mass produce education is greatest.

AREAS FOR FURTHER CONSIDERATION

Nothing has done more over the years to inhibit the development of valid and productive school guidance programs than the failure of principals and school counselors to work together as an effective guidance team, nor is anything more important to the well-being of the counselors themselves. To improve this relationship will require additional understanding and new skills for both. Each must acquire a better understanding of the forces at work within the principal-counselor relationship and the skills that are necessary for them to build a strong professional bond. In order to insure that this will happen, careful attention must be given to the following critical areas.

1. University Training Programs
   Several things have been suggested here that should be integral parts of the training programs for both counselors and principals. Every analysis of the counselor-principal relationship seems to suggest that at least one part of their training programs should bring them together in a relationship skill-building seminar, conducted in an atmosphere that is psychologically comfortable for both, prior to the time they confront each other in the field.

2. Professional Associations
   The professional associations of each — national, state and local — must work closely in order to promote better understanding and to reduce the temptation in conferences and publications to point blame at each other.

3. Clarifying Purpose and Goals
   School counselors, as a professional group, must reach agreement on the relationships of both guidance and counseling to the central focus of the school, instruction. While the schism grows (guidance vs. counseling) so does the confusion with which principals must deal, in the minds of students and parents as well as in their own.

4. Needs Assessment and Evaluation
   Reaching agreement on what students and parents view as the highest and lowest priorities among their needs is the most important step principals and counselors can take in building a strong professional relationship. Agreement on direction facilitates discussion of delivery systems and role definitions. Local student needs and program evaluation studies enhance communication and reduce friction between administrators and counselors.

5. State and National Leadership
   Local programs often fall victim to local thinking. Strong leadership from state departments of education and the U.S. Office of Education can do much to assist local principals and counselors reduce their differences and work together in harmony with a common purpose.

6. Active Management of Guidance Services
   Just as principals are assuming a more understanding and active role in their support of counseling, counselors must display their willingness to accept a more active leadership role in the administration of the total guidance program — something not all counselors have been willing to do in the past. Certainly, assessing student needs, clarifying priorities among goals, designing new delivery systems, and evaluating outcomes take time; time usually spent in counseling with students for which there is always too little. However, it is essential that they be done if public support for guidance and counseling is to continue as it has in the past. Failure to cooperate with building principals in their efforts to accomplish such tasks can become a significant deterrent in any effort to build a productive counselor-principal relationship.

SUMMARY

Elementary and secondary school principals are a powerful influence either for or against the development of an effective guidance program in their schools. When convinced of its worth and practicality, they become willing participants in the administration of the program and supportive of it. If ill-advised about guidance, its purpose, activities, and impact upon the instructional program; or if antagonized by the actions of counselors, principals may do much to deter its development. In a thorough analysis of the influence administrators have had upon the practice of school guidance and counseling, Roger F. Aubrey found that:[8]

> A history of guidance and counseling also suggests that school administrators may be a major constraint to the development of a strong profession. This seems evident because school administrators largely control what school counselors do and how they spend their time. Also, history reveals that school administrators feel the major purpose of schools is that of teaching and learning. Anything unrelated to this purpose is considered ancillary and supportive and guidance and counseling is included in this category.

In the end, a good working relationship between principals and counselors must be built — and continually rebuilt — on the job in each building where goal priorities are always slightly different and changing, and where staff roles must, to some degree, be constantly reaffirmed or redefined in order to meet the ever-changing needs of the student body. As increasing attention is given to the validity and effectiveness of elementary and secondary school guidance programs, it becomes more important that the principal and the counselor learn to work together as a guidance team. Neither can accomplish the task alone. As was pointed out in a joint statement by The American School Counselor Association, The National Association of Secondary School Principals, and The American Association of School Administrators:[9]

> Principals and counselors share a tremendous responsibility in the process of helping pupils achieve the maximum benefits from their school experience. An awareness and appreciation of the contributions each can make should enable both principal and counselor to utilize more fully their individual competencies in serving youth.

Effective counselors are both interested in individual students and the environment which surrounds them. The person in the strongest position to influence the school environment is the principal. As a team, they are more effective in facilitating student develop than either working alone. Thus, the first step to be taken in the creation of a smooth functioning program of guidance services is for counselors and principals to establish the kind of professional relationship which builds respect, each for the other, and in the end, makes it possible to have the best possible guidance program for the community they serve.

FOOTNOTES

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2. Ibid., pp. 46-47.
3. D.H. Hart and D.J. Prince, "Role Conflict for School Counselors: Training Versus Job Demands," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 48, No. 5, January, 1970, p. 379.
4. This We Believe, p. 46.
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6. Scott D. Thomson, "New Opportunities for Counseling Services," NASSP Bulletin, Vol. 61, No. 410, September, 1977, p. 2.
7. J.H. Hassard, "Perceptions of Ideal Counselor Role Held by Secondary Principals in Southwestern Ontario," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Michigan State University, East Lansing, 1976, p. 184.
8. Roger F. Aubrey, "An Examination of Selected Constraints on the Practice of School Guidance and Counseling," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Boston University, 1975. In Dissertation Abstracts International, (A), Vol. 36, No. 8, February, 1976, p. 5032.
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The Guidance Program and Pupil Personnel Services

Ms. Judy Tindall

INTRODUCTION

Since the beginning of their profession, school counselors have had an unclear identity. This is not to say that guidance should not be a changing role, but rather that those involved in professional guidance work have not yet established a fundamental role within the schools that is integral and necessary. The role of the guidance worker has been dictated by many publics (administrators, parents, students, legislators, etc.). In many schools they are seen as the mental health expert, but at the same time expected to handle computer scheduling, act as attendance officer and substitute nurse, conduct testing, implement the career education program, and many other tasks.

Because of the quasi-administrative tasks assigned (and accepted) by guidance workers, there were many pupil needs not being met. Students still had developmental and emotional problems, parents still needed help and teachers still needed both support and assistance. As a result, other pupil personnel workers began to move into the schools. These specialists included social workers, psychologists, speech therapists, hearing clinicians, and others.

At the same time community resources were expanding. Mental health centers in urban and rural communities sprang up. Juvenile court programs, crisis centers, child abuse clinics, family and child services, welfare programs and employment services were started and expanded. As these services grew, there appeared to be a deficiency in terms of cooperation between school and community.

Very often the new pupil service workers in the schools and the community resources did not communicate and in some instances a great deal of professional jealousy appeared. Many school counselors felt that the job done by the psychologists or social worker could be done just as well by the school counselor if "only there were enough time." Many counselors were angry that administrators were giving the new workers the roles that they themselves wanted. The result was the school counselor keeping the old role of "quasi-administrator."

School counselors today are in a difficult bind. Many pressures are being put on counselors to change. The professional literature is pointing the way to a new preventive role for counselors. Administrators are now asking counselors to perform expanded roles (often without taking old tasks away). Counselors are faced with changes or reductions in their positions. Additional pupil service workers are moving into the school at a time when most counselors are not trained to work as a "team." All of this leads to frustration for the professional school counselor and the new pupil personnel worker.

If the schools are attempting to educate the whole child, but at the same time cut back on special services, then there must be a different approach. We must have at our hands, referral sources not only at the school district levels but also at the community level. We must move in the direction of referral agent for severe problems so we can be free to work in the preventive areas. Professional jealousy and competition must give way to cooperation. Counselors must realize that they "can't do it all" — they must learn to trust other professionals and develop a cooperative program.

It is hoped that this paper will suggest new directions for school counselors as they work with pupil personnel service workers. I personally feel that school counselors are still the professionals trusted most by teachers, parents, administrators and students and as a result are the first line of referral. It is hoped that this paper will present a philosophical framework for cooperation and suggest strategies for implementation of a comprehensive pupil personnel services program.

DEFINITION OF THE ISSUE

The first definition that is important to clarify is the term guidance. I suggest that guidance be defined very broadly and should be conceptualized as a program rather than a series of isolated tasks. The program concept infers goals and focus. A more complete definition is found in Shaw (1973):

> Guidance will be defined as a program implemented by professional specialists within the school system whose primary task is the application of skills and theory derived from the behavioral sciences. These skills will be applied primarily toward the accomplishment of goals related to the affective domain, in contrast to the teacher whose goals are primarily related to the cognitive domain. Both teacher and guidance specialist will have goals which at times overlap, but the teacher's focus will be on the content of education while the guidance specialist will be on the process.

The guidance program may include components in counseling, testing, appraisal, orientation, and placement. Each component may have specific areas. Many of the components may overlap. Guidance is seen as a third force in education. The others being the teaching process and the administrative process.

Pupil personnel services fulfill a facilitating function within the school by helping each student to achieve their maximum personal and educational development. The services provide both preventative and corrective activities designed to meet the unique needs of each student regardless of ability, achievement or adjustment. (Liddle and Kroll 1969).

The professions generally represented in the total pupil personnel services program are the school counselor, school social worker, school psychologist, child welfare worker, attendance worker, speech and hearing specialist, learning disability teacher, medical specialist, nurse and juvenile officer. Each must relate to the teacher and administrator.

Each of these specialists will work to help the facilitation of the total growth of the student. Each may have a different focus. To suggest a specific role for each worker may be difficult. Often it is felt that there are more similarities than differences among these positions. In general, the school counselor will work with the normal population of children and the social worker and school psychologist will assist students that are experiencing an interruption or barrier of a severe nature in their normal growth experience. (Missouri Position Paper, 1976).

Generally speaking, school counselors help students through self understanding, increased awareness of educational and career opportunities, psychological training, help students attain personal and social adjustments, develop cooperative attitudes between specialists, provide information to staff, parents, students and community, and develop a worthwhile program of evaluation.

Social workers consult with staff members, conduct community agency liaison activities, interview students, perform diagnostic evaluations, and provide parent education and in-service training programs.

School psychologists function by assessing individual intellectual and psychological functioning, administer and interpret group and individual tests, refer pupils to agencies, and conduct individual and group counseling.

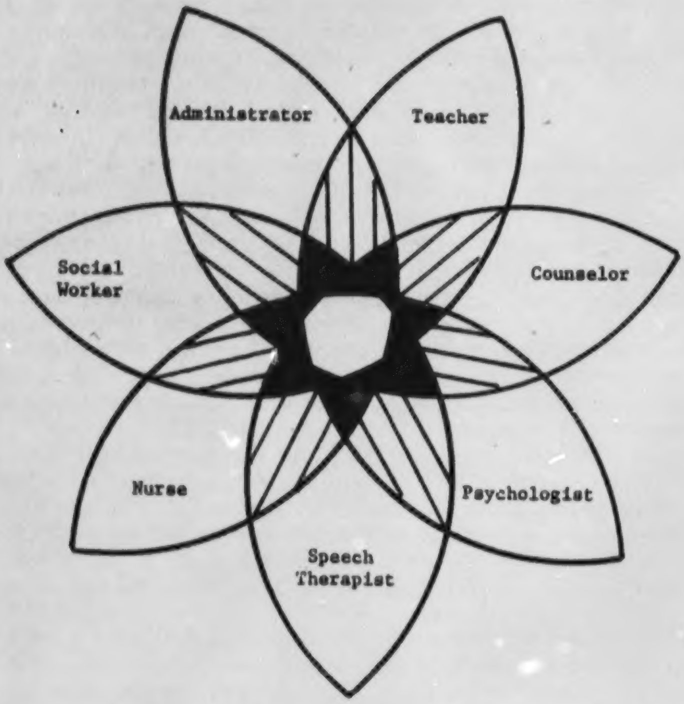
Pupil personnel service administrators coordinate the work of the entire pupil personnel team, determine programs that are needed, interpret services to parents, maintain working relationship with other professionals and volunteers, provide leadership in fostering professional growth and evaluation of staff.

The functions of the other specialists seem self-explanatory.

RELATIONSHIPS IN PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES

In order to move into the mainstream of American education, it is crucial that all pupil personnel services workers look at the total pupil service program as preventive rather than remedial. This would make the pupil personnel worker a total education team member along with the teachers and administrators. The teachers would focus on the intellectual and cognitive growth of students and counselors and other pupil personnel workers would focus on affective growth and skills. Figure 1 points out how certain overlapping of roles will occur.

It must be agreed on that "all" students should have access to pupil personnel services. To deliver this kind of program involves a preventive model, where the worker is active rather than passive. This means that the pupil personnel service worker is assertively reaching out to all students with psychological programs, career development programs, group experiences, etc. Pupil personnel workers need to be aware of the needs and concerns to the total student population, not only those who have come forth or been referred because of serious problems. School personnel must develop programs that will involve all students and students will get



Common Variance of Function of Pupil Personnel Team

to know counselors, social workers, psychologists, etc. As these programs are developed, they should relate to the broad purposes of public education and the specific school.

There are a number of differences in the training, practice, and professional identity of the various pupil personnel service workers. Presently, most school counselors identify with American Personnel and Guidance Association and the American School Counselor Association. School psychologists tend to identify with American Psychological Association and the school social worker most often affiliates with the National Association of Social Workers.

In terms of operation, school counselors are generally assigned to one building, while the other pupil personnel workers are assigned to a central location and work with a number of schools. The training of each professional is carried on independently in higher education and each specialist must adhere to separate and different certification requirements. As stated earlier, there are still many problems concerning the role of each professional. For example, the school counselor role is still seen in the literature as a preventive one. In actual practice, the role is more passive and remedial. The psychologist role is basically treatment and evaluative. The school social worker coordinates a variety of functions and services.

Within each profession, there is a great deal of disagreement concerning roles. (Shaw, 1973). There appear to be few functions that one profession is willing to relegate to another for "exclusive" ownership. Because of these factors, much duplication of role is found which often results in the "left hand not knowing what the right hand is doing."

To correct this situation, it seems imperative that pupil personnel workers begin to focus on the concept of "teaming." Ferguson (1969) suggests that an operational unit is defined as the smallest operating unit. He suggests the following staff ratios:

PPS Administrator - 1
Elementary School Counselor - 1:600
Secondary School Counselor - 1:300
School Psychologist - 1:2000
School Social Worker - 1:2000
School Nurse - 1:2000

Ferguson also suggests community support such as medical, psychological, sub-professional, para-professional, counselor assistance, psychometrics, etc. He suggests that one unit may serve more than one administrative unit in rural areas. The use of mobil units could be used in these areas. In metropolitan units with economic deprivation, the unit may be as small as 500. The housing of services would not necessarily be centralized.

Others have suggested 90 pupil personnel specialists for every 10,000 students. (Kroll and Lindle). A new trend seems to be staffing programs — not schools. In other words, the district decides on the type of program and then hires a team of pupil service workers to staff the program.

Complete staff implementation can best be accomplished if there is a coordinator of PPS services for each school district and a coordinator for each building unit. The district level coordinator would have all pupil personnel workers under direct supervision and also be responsible for program, development, evaluation, budget, in-service training, etc. The building level coordinator would supervise and coordinate all of the functions and personnel in the particular school.

This coordinator would work cooperatively with the principal in organizing the PPS program, evaluation of services and collaborating with the instructional component.

The pupil personnel services team needs to develop a system of identifying individual needs and implement a program to provide special services to meet those needs. The team will integrate all pertinent information on each student and work toward the child's optimum development.

This concept would be useful and helpful in "mainstreaming" and also has far reaching effects on the curriculum. Today there is pressure from the public for some kind of minimum essentials testing for seniors. Pupil personnel service workers can play a vital role in seeing that students meet these minimum essential competencies.

A LOOK AT THE FUTURE

As a result of federal funding, public needs, and technological advances, education and work will no longer be stratified but will involve all ages of learning working together. The schools will serve a wider clientele — pre-school, drop-outs, normal child, parent education, etc. (Liddle and Kroll).

There is a tremendous push for state support of schools to help the rich and poor districts equalize. New forms of financing have been looked at in such states as New Jersey. Missouri equalized state funding for school districts this year.

The schools will no longer be an isolated entity. The community will mesh with the schools in their effort for long range planning. Local civil rights groups, women's groups, colleges and universities will work with local districts.

The public demand will shift the emphasis from problem-solving to problem prevention from merely facilitating learning to building a positive mental health program, from categorizing and labeling students to individualizing education in a more genuine sense.

Mosher (1975) has suggested that the future emphasis for pupil personnel services is with human development. Our history has given the public schools the charge to educate the whole child. The psychological imperative seems to provide an environment or experience to nurture learning. Education has the learning theories and the technology.

If pupil personnel workers can agree that the thrust of their services is problem prevention, then they will have found a sound basis upon which to work together and develop their program. Mosher (1975) discusses some of the ideas when he says that we must move resources, personnel and programs to primary prevention from secondary treatment and crises intervention. This will move pupil personnel workers and programs into the educational mainstream which will involve the team in curriculum changes and increase consultation with teachers and administrators.

With the concept that every child has the opportunity to use pupil services, the then pupil personnel workers must join teachers in the introduction of developmental education through the curriculum. It is obvious that developmental education can not happen without strong elementary school guidance programs.

P.P.S. workers must also work in the area of parent education, teacher education and the development of para-professionals. Aubrey (1975) sees curriculum as the life blood of the educational process and feels that the P.P.S. workers need to deal directly with the curriculum by teaching their own courses and offering certain learning experiences. He sees P.P.S. specialists as technicians today and not educators and believes that they must become educators.

If guidance programs are to move into problem prevention, then the federal government will have to take the lead. The federal government must fund and establish model programs throughout the country. They must take the lead in the training (retraining) of personnel as during the N.D.E.A. era. There must be models for ways to coordinate P.P.S. teams on a district-wide basis and a school-wide basis.

State departments of education must take a strong stand to see that federal funds are used properly and must aggressively move to mandate elementary guidance in each state. The result will be a K-12 pupil services continuum. The state must provide funding for specialists with specific training for the various programs. Often with state and federal funding, local districts hire the most expedient, not the most qualified. Each state must set rigorous standards for the guidance workers, and supervise the training, retraining and the use of personnel within each school district. Each district would be required to write guidance programs that meet its needs and set up evaluation procedures that would lead to stronger components within its own program.

Local districts must acknowledge that pupil services are equal to instruction and administration. The California P.G.A. (1972) published a monograph which supports this concept and offers a pupil personnel services master plan for districts. They suggest that each program has a statement of purpose and procedure and that the program is under the leadership of a director with direct responsibility for organization, budget, supervision for all P.P.S. workers. The program should be available for all children and youth so they may have the services of such areas as guidance, social work, counseling, attendance, psychological, psychiatric, speech and hearing, nursing, medical, special education, parent education, assessment, and research. The director will be involved with cooperative planning by using sound assessment procedures.

The program will be economical and efficient because of accountability procedures. There will also be appropriate ratios and standards. The financial support of the program needs to be consistent with the district's ability to pay. A suggested figure is 7 to 15.8 percent of the district budget and this would not include outside funding. The director will also develop programs at each school level and will have participation of staff at the district level. The director will provide a systematic involvement of community leadership in the development of the programs of pupil services and will serve as a liaison with institutions of higher education. They will also develop a relationship with outside agencies and be responsible for program evaluation.

LEADERSHIP OF GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

The leadership within each district is crucial to the imolementation of a guidance plan. Much can be done through positive reinforcement and recognition of quality activities. This leader must have the ability to assess strengths of the staff and assign certain leadership roles. The leader should be knowledgeable of the total pupil service area and have the energy and initiative to develop programs and follow them through. He/She needs to be an organizer of people and be able to delegate responsibility. The leader must utilize the strengths of the staff and capitalize on these strengths. He/She must serve as a model team member and be a key communicator and advocate for pupil personnel services.

PROBLEMS INHERENT WITH CHANGE

As with any change, the people directly responsible for change will resist it the most. For example, counselors that like and accept a "quasi-administrative role will not want to give up that role. Psychologists that assume the role of the expert in human behavior will not want to lose their unique position even though few prople are aware of these skills.

Principals and superintendents will still see the roles of the P.P.S. workers in the traditional framework and expect the same kind of behaviors will possibly be threatened by the new direction and new assertiveness of the team workers. In other words, if they are accustomed to the passive, quiet staff member, the assertive, involved person will create quite a shock.

Thorough implementation of the "teaming" concept will require extensive in-service training for superintendents and principals. Continual staff organization and communication will be required to develop programs and organize teams. There needs to be additional training for leaders and coordinators.

We have the technology, we have the ideas, we have the philosophy, and all that is needed is effective people to develop effective programs that will assist in developing effective human beings.

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Federal, State and Local Coordination and Supervision of Guidance and Counseling Programs

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INTRODUCTION

For the past decade, a serious erosion of Federal support for national and state level leadership and supervision in counseling and guidance has been occurring. This lessening support is reflected in decreasing appropriations and consolidation of categorical legislation into "block grants." The results of this erosion are reflected by the following examples:

1. Dismantling of the administrative/leadership unit for counseling and guidance in the U.S. Office of Education (USOE).
2. Sharp reductions in the number of supervisors/consultants of counseling and guidance employed in State Departments of Education.
3. Elimination of the Federal Government's role in providing national leadership for counseling and guidance.
4. Sharp reductions in the amount of Federal dollars appropriated to support counseling and guidance and/or reaching the local levels at a time of substantially increased need.
5. The enactment of numerous provisions for counseling and guidance in Federal legislation without consideration of means to coordinate the delivery of these services.

There can be little doubt that the capability of state and Federal governments to provide leadership, direction, and supervision for the delivery of counseling and guidance services has been seriously jeopardized. Recognizing this trend a few years ago, the American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA) launched efforts during 1974 to make the Congress more aware of the problems—a need to strengthen state and Federal leadership for counseling and guidance in order to better implement the many related national programs which have been enacted in recent years (e.g., Vocational Education Act), as well as to meet continuing needs. The effort of APGA came to fruition with the passage of a key piece of legislation: Public Law 94-482, the Education Amendments of 1976, and more particularly Title III, Part D. A vehicle has thus been provided to achieve program coordination, to restore fiscal support for USOE and state counseling and guidance staffs, and to address continuing education needs of guidance professionals. In enacting this legislation, the Congress found that (Section 341):

1. Guidance and counseling activities are an essential component to assure success in achieving the goals of many education programs;

2. Lack of coordination among guidance and counseling activities support jointly or separately by Federal programs and by state and local programs has resulted in an underutilization of resources available for such activities; and

3. Increased and improved preparation of education professionals is needed in guidance and counseling, including administration of guidance and counseling programs at the state and local levels, . . .

The passage of this legislation marked the first time that the Congress has addressed the problems inherent in assuring maximum leadership to consider, plan, coordinate and provide quality counseling and guidance programs for the nation's youth. The key provisions within Title III, Part D which concern the supervisory and leadership needs cited by Congress are in Sections 342 (b), 343 (a), and 344 (b). Authorized in these sections are the following activities:

1. Section 342 (b) — $3,000,000 for Fiscal Year 1977 only for grants to the states (on a formula basis) for programs, projects and leadership activities designed to expand and strengthen school counseling and guidance programs.

2. Section 343 (a) — Creation of an administrative unit within USOE to carry out these three functions:

    2.1 Carry out the provisions of the section;

    2.2 Provide information about the "state-of-the-art" in school counseling and guidance at the Federal, state and local levels; and

    2.3 Advise the Commissioner on ways to more effectively coordinate the delivery of school counseling and guidance programs at the Federal, state and local levels given various funding sources and programs.

3. Section 344 (b) — Grants to state education agencies (SEAs) to assist in carrying out programs to coordinate and improve the delivery of school counseling and guidance programs.

The legislation acknowledges, albeit implicitly, that serious erosion has occurred with regard especially to Federal and state leadership for counseling and guidance and that the changing role of school counselors necessitates opportunities for re-training and in-service education. The Congress has recognized that it is crucial that the USOE and SEAs establish and maintain organized, coordinated administrative and leadership structures for counseling and guidance. The time has come, for all of the obvious reasons, to end the operation of separated, occusionally polarized, activities in counseling and guidance simply because of separate funding authorizations.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the status of Federal, state and local level supervision in school counseling and guidance together with ways in which to achieve greater coordination in the organization and delivery of program services. Included will be brief historical perspectives and more detailed discussions of present and future directions and/or concerns. An overview of applicable legislation will also be provided and suggestions for attaining program coordination and strengthening supervision in counseling and guidance is presented in the final chapter along with questions to stimulate discussion about the topic.

REVIEW/OVERVIEW OF APPLICABLE LEGISLATION

There can be little doubt about the substantial impact which Federal legislation has had on the growth of the school counseling profession. In more recent years, even some states are "getting into the act;" particularly with regard to privileged communications statutes, collective bargaining provisions and support for elementary school counseling and guidance program development. Counseling and guidance has been dependent upon (and probably will continue to be dependent) legislative support for its development, maintenance and expansion. The public, through their elected representatives and advisory bodies, has decreed that counseling and guidance are important for our nation's youth and the profession has grown and responded. The purpose of this chapter is to provide a review and overview of the applicable Federal and state legislation. Hopefully, this will aid in better understanding (a) the resultant effect which these laws have on the school counseling profession, (b) how they can be used to strengthen the profession, and (c) something of the nature of the need to achieve coordination in the delivery of these programs.

Federal

The Federal Government has to the present had the singularly most significant impact on the testing, counseling and guidance movement in the nation's elementary and secondary schools. This has occurred principally through legislative action and subsequent USOE administrative action and staffing. Although there was earlier legislation in counseling and guidance (e.g., George Bardon Act), the passage of the National Defense Education Act, Titles V-A and V-B (NDEA, V-A & V-B) in 1958 marked the first major thrust by the Federal government to support the inclusion of counseling and guidance in the schools. In a landmark reaction to Russia's launching of Sputnik, the Congress identified counseling and guidance as crucial to the purposes of education in the United States.

Since 1959, two other major bills supporting elementary and secondary education have been enacted. Each of these, the Vocational Education Act (VEA) and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), contained strong provisions for counseling and guidance.

Through the 1960's, the Congress supported categorical legislation for education programs. This meant that the individual identity of program areas were maintained in legislation and appropriation of funds were targeted to specified areas. In 1970, however, consolidation of programs and appropriations into "block grants" began to occur with regularity as their authorizing legislation expired and came up for review and extension. One of the first consolidations involved the weaving in of NDEA, V-A into ESEA, Title III. NDEA, Title V-B, which provided training programs for the preparation and in-service training of school counselors, had disappeared after an earlier consolidation into the Education Professions Development Act. Under legislative consolidation, the purposes of merged programs are usually maintained but administering agencies (Federal, state or local) are afforded varying discretion in the use of the funds made available. A given merged program may receive all, some or none of the funds. Counseling and guidance programs have suffered enormous losses and retrenchment in many states through consolidation of Federal support. The irony is that this does not seem to have been the intent of the Congress. It has occurred, however, due to conflicting legislative language, bureaucratic interpretation and infighting between professional groups.

Presently, the applicable Federal legislation addressing counseling and guidance and effecting personnel and programs is found in two areas — (a) that which makes funds available to support personnel and/or practices and (b) that which impacts on personnel and programs but for which no funds are authorized. Under P.L. 94-482, Title III, Part D the Federal Government is directed to re-establish an administrative unit and together with the states work to coordinate the organization, administration and delivery of all programs supporting counseling and guidance in elementary and secondary schools. Toward this end, attention will have to be given to all of the following Federal programs:

1. Federal statutes affecting school counselors in which funds are authorized.

1.1 P.O. 93-380 The Education Amendments of 1974.

— Title I Extends Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (P.O. 89-10) providing money for local educational agencies that have concentrations of low income children. Traditionally LEAs have occasionally used some of Title I money to provide counseling services for children in Title I elementary schools.

— Special Projects Act. Provides several programs with guidance components.

— Gifted and Talented Children (Sec. 404) Authorized grants to SEAs and LEAs to provide programs to meet the special educational needs of gifted and talented children. Money is also authorized to train personnel to work with the gifted and talented.

— Career Education (Sec. 406). Provides a beginning for states to assess how far they have come in developing career education programs and state plans for career education. In the definition of career education, guidance and counseling is specifically mentioned.

— Women's Education Equity (Sec. 408). This includes a section to train guidance and counseling personnel to provide educational equity to all children.

— Title IV-B. Libraries and Learning Resources. Provides grants to the states in a consolidation with Libraries and Learning Resources for testing, K-12 programs of counseling and guidance, and leadership activities to expand and strengthen counseling and guidance services in the schools.

— Title IV-C. Educational Innovation and Support. Provides grants to the states for, among other things, strengthening leadership resources of SEAs and LEAs.

1.2 - P.L. 94-482. Educational Amendments of 1976

— Title II, Vocational Education. Amends the Vocational Education Act to mandate that not less than 20% of the money provided the states for vocational education be used to provide programs of vocational development, guidance and counseling. Other sections of this title also include specific mention of counseling and guidance and authorize funds to support same. Counseling and guidance personnel will also need to consider the reduction of sex-role stereotyping provisions.

— Title III-C, Career Education. Addresses career education including guidance and counseling services, training of counselors, and gathering career information for the use of counselors and others was again authorized.

— Title III, Part D, Guidance and Counseling. Mandates an administrative unit for guidance in USOE. There is also a section $344a) providing for training of teachers and school counselors in making use of business and industry in career counseling programs as well as to improve supervisory services. Other provisions of this title are covered in depth in other sections of this paper.

1.3. P.L. 95-93. Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977. Amends Title III of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act. Authorizes programs jointly sponsored by CETA prime sponsors and LEAs to provide work experiences for in-school youth which must include job information, counseling, guidance, and placement services for participating youth. The legislation mandates that the funds must be used by LEAs to pay the cost of school-based counselors needed to carry out the provisions of the in-school program. Another provision mandates that the National Occupational information Coordinating Committee include among its activities assistance to states in developing occupational information systems accessible to local schools.

1.4. P.L. 95-208. Career Education Incentive Act. Provides for assistance to SEAs and LEAs with programs of career education. Career education includes comprehensive career guidance, counseling placement and follow-up services. It also provides in-service education for educational personnel including counselors.

1.5. P.L. 94-142. Education of the Handicapped Act. Provides for appropriate education for all handicapped children. Education includes special education and related services. One of the services included in the definition of related services is that of the counseling service.

2. Federal statutes affecting school counselors in which no funds are authorized.

2.2. P.L. 93-380. The Education Amendments of 1974.

— Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act of 1974. Provides that parents and students in schools receiving federal funds will have access to all official school records on the student. Open records do not include records a professional on the school staff keeps for his/her own use. In addition to the language set forth in each of these laws, it is necessary to know and consider the accompanying rules and regulations. These rules and regulations, developed by the federal agency which administerd the law (USOE in most of the instances cited above), have the force of law.

It is this aspect of the federal involvement in which the constraints, strings or stimulus for expenditure of the funds are set forth. The regulations under Title IX, for example, aimed at resolving societal problems with regard to sex role stereotyping and discrimination may, in fact, cause another set of problems even without consideration of the degree of public receptiveness to the regulations. Counseling and guidance professionals must be aware of the effect of all of this on their respective roles and functioning.

State

The tempo of legislative action on behalf of counseling and guidance has increased substantially in the past few years. The result mainly of efforts by school counselors, their professional organizations and state education agencies (SEAs), this legislation appears to be centered on privileged communications and elementary school counseling and guidance. In an area related to school counseling, many states are also enacting pupil rights and responsibilities laws. It is interesting to note that while the federal pattern for education legislation is clearly one of consolidation, the opposite is occurring in state legislatures; at least as it affects counseling and guidance.

Just as with federal legislation, this increase in the activities of states is usually accompanied by rule-making all combining to affect the school counseling and guidance personnel and programs. Occasionally the legislation is directed at program development (e.g., elementary school guidance) while at other times it is aimed at resolving functional problems (e.g., privileged communications) or prescribing new responsibilities for school counselors (e.g., pupil rights and responsibilities or pupil records). In Wisconsin, state legislation was enacted in 1973 which includes mandated counseling and guidance services as among those programs necessary to equalize educational opportunity. The definite increase in the number of states passing legislation in support of counseling and guidance has helped to fill part of the void created by lessening federal support. More importantly, it is indicative of continued recognition of the importance of and need for elementary and secondary school counseling and guidance programs. It also underscores the critical need for coordination across supporting sources, etc.

The following are examples of types of existing state legislation which have been enacted in support of counseling and guidance:

1. Elementary School Counseling and Guidance (Florida, Oklahoma, North Carolina, Hawaii)
2. Privileged Communications for School Counselors (Tennessee)
3. Pupil Records (Wisconsin)
4. Mandated Services (Wisconsin)
5. Certification Standards (All States)
7. Work Study (Wisconsin)

The Immediate Future

As noted in Chapter I, the passage of P.L. 94-482, Title III, Part D focuses new attention on testing, counseling and guidance in our nation's schools and on the federal, state and local supervision and coordination of these services. Substantial thrusts for the field have been made first through federal legislation since 1958 and more recently through legislation enacted in some of the states.

The passage and implementation of this legislation has been both a blessing and a burden. The number of school counselors employed and the funds expended on counseling and guidance have risen markedly since the passage of NDEA. Regulations set forth to administer the legislation have influenced certification standards, determined allowable expenditures — and thus, have been very persuasive in program design, staffing and operation at state and local levels, lacked coordinative provisions and delimited counselor role and function.

In the immediate future, counseling and guidance personnel must become ever more knowledgeable about the political, legislative, and rule-making processes. They must not only know about existing federal and state, where applicable, laws affecting their work but just as well those laws which are up for revision and extension (e.g., P.L. 93-380 is presently undergoing such consideration). On a parallel course, they must know, understand and participate in the rule-making processes. Finally, counseling and guidance personnel — especially those in state supervision — must also now move to engage in state-by-state planning to systematically determine the status of school counseling and guidance and to formulate comprehensive state plans to achieve coordination in the total delivery of counseling and guidance programs. In so doing, the profession will take a significant, vital step to strengthen and expand these services which today and tomorrow are and will be needed more than ever before for the country's children and youth.

SUPERVISION/ADMINISTRATION OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING AT THE FEDERAL LEVEL

Before considering the role of supervision and administration of guidance and counseling within USOE, a brief review of the history of guidance and counseling in the Office of Education provides an important perspective. This will be followed by consideration of the recently mandated unit for counseling and guidance within USOE.

A Historical Perspective

Staffing and leadership for guidance and counseling began in the Office of Education in 1938. Even though no federal legislation specifically provided money for guidance and counseling, at that time, vocational education legislation was broadly interpreted to include guidance. Thus the Occupational Information and Guidance Service Bureau was established under Harry Jager in 1938. During the time of this bureau state level departments of guidance and counseling began. Some money was also provided for counselor education. Throughout the 1940's under the national leadership of Harry Jager, a number of national conferences to develop guidance competencies were held. After 1949, the guidance unit was removed from vocational education and a unit for guidance and counseling was no longer found within USOE.

With the passage of the National Defense Education Act of 1958, the Guidance and Personnel Services Branch headed by Don D. Twiford was created to administer the guidance provisions of the legislation (Titles V-A and V-B). In addition to administering the programs provided for by the legislation, the branch provided important leadership and information services for guidance at the state and local level. These included:

1. Periodic publications of information on guidance and counseling activities in each state including results of studies of the impact of Title V-A programs on the local school systems.
2. Direct assistance to SEAs in program organization and development for guidance and counseling.
3. Coordination of national conferences of state supervisors of guidance to discuss issues and problems involved in the development of state programs.
4. Cooperating with state educational authorities to develop on-going evaluation of guidance services in each state.
5. Assisting in planning in-service training programs.

These are enumerated here because past activities may furnish ideas about what activities the profession would like to see included in the newly designated unit. Although one must remember that only activities permitted under the language of the legislation can be included. The enumeration also gives a better sense of what has been lost.

With the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act in 1965, merging NDEA-V-A with Supplementary Centers and Services, guidance once again had no separate unit within USOE. Yet another merger occurred in the Education Amendments of 1974 in Title IV. Here the guidance provisions of ESEA were joined with Library and Learning Resources. Under the 1974 consolidation, LEAs were permitted to apportion the money they received through Title IV as they saw fit between guidance and counseling, libraries, and learning resources. At the state level where "pass-through" provisions were set forth this resulted in a serious cut-back in federal funds expended for guidance; a cut-back which was apparently felt quite deeply at the LEA level, also as counseling and guidance lost out to other programs supported by the consolidation. By 1974, at the federal level, administration of guidance provisions of federal legislation was no longer the responsibility of any one person. While there were people in USOE with expertise in guidance, their job descriptions did not indicate that they were involved in administering the programs that were specifically earmarked for or even closely related to or dependent upon guidance.

Even though from 1965 on there was a steady decline of emphasis on guidance and counseling with the Office of Education, as a result of a gradual erosion of categorical support of state and local level guidance functions originally provided for under NDEA, the Congress passed many other pieces of legislation that specifically mandated guidance services. These have been reviewed in Chapter II. Despite the fact that the programs existed, no one at federal, state, or local levels was specifically responsible for seeing that they were carried out as mandated by the legislation, that states coordinated the federal efforts with the state and local efforts, that areas of overlap at the federal, state and local levels were identified, and that areas of need were identified as a basis for planning future programs efforts. While counseling and guidance continued to be recognized as essential to attaining many of the goals of education, no consideration was given to how those services should be packaged and the importance of professional leadership to attaining desired ends. Guidance and counseling lost out to other programmatic thrusts for a variety of reasons.

Rather than USOE serving as a watchdog, advocate and leader for programs of guidance and counseling, professional associations such as APGA began to fill the role as much as they possibly could. But information was difficult to obtain in such key areas as the amount of money specifically earmarked for guidance services at state and local levels and the degree to which legislative provisions for guidance services were actually carried out. Information on state level activities was also difficult to obtain since there was no designated clearinghouse for such information except that which could be provided through the ERIC center for guidance and counseling in Ann Arbor, Michigan. Furthermore, no federal effort could be mounted to determine the effectiveness of and needs of counseling and guidance in the various states since officials within USOE were not requiring such data. Few, if any states, continued to gather such information. This created still another void — the absence of information to aid Congressional Committees in drafting legislation to improve and expand counseling and guidance programs delivery systems.

The lack of administrative and leadership functions from USOE was partially responsible for a subsequent decline of leadership services at the state level. What became clear is that even though education is primarily the responsibility of the states, the federal government often serves a policy-making function. Where the federal emphasis is, the state emphasis often follows. As a result, with the lack of focus on guidance within the federal executive branch and the money to assist state education agencies to strengthen state level leadership for guidance, the state level leadership was weakened and in some cases phased out.

The Present Status — Implementing a New Thrust

This history brings us to the current status of guidance and counseling within the Office of Education. The language of the Education Amendments of 1976 is clear in its mandate to USOE to establish an administrative unit for guidance and counseling within the Office of Education. This unit is to provide information about the state of the art in guidance and counseling at the federal, state and local levels and advise the Commissioner of Education on ways to coordinate the delivery of guidance services. The coordination has two facets. The first involves coordinating guidance and counseling activities in programs within the jurisdiction of USOE. The second is, to the extent possible, the coordination of federal programs for guidance and counseling in the Office of Education with other programs of the federal government and with state and local programs of guidance and counseling. What is not clear is what providing information and coordination means in actual practice.

The emphasis on gathering information on the state of the art in counseling and on coordination furnishes the profession with a unique opportunity

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to define what it is that the federal level can do that the states on their own cannot do. Some roles for USOE might include:

1. Acting as a clearinghouse for information on innovative practices in guidance and counseling.
2. Maintaining information on the names of individuals, schools, and/or college and universities that are developing programs designed to meet particular needs or to tackle specific problems in education.
3. Providing for periodical regional meetings for state supervisors and other key guidance personnel such as the ones being held in 1978 to examine the state of the art and identify key issues and concerns.
4. Providing information on federal programs with guidance and counseling components for the use of SEAs or LEAs who may wish to apply for funds or tap into on-going programs supported by the federal government.
5. Assisting in the development of state plans for guidance and counseling.
6. Developing task forces to look at current issues in the field and develop strategies for tackling problems (e.g., earlier identification of learning disabled children, placement, and involving parents more in guidance and counseling).
7. Providing results of evaluation studies of guidance and counseling programs.
8. Identifying needed areas of pre-service and in-service education and suggestions for training components.
9. Assisting in the development of strategies to tackle the job of state level coordination in the delivery of guidance services.

These are only suggestions. The actual procedures and specific activities that fall under providing information and coordination are still in the formative stages. This gives the states a chance to indicate to USOE how the federal government can most effectively implement to provisions of P.L. 94-482, Title III, Part D.

At this time, no one is certain how many people will be in the unit for guidance and counseling nor where it will be housed. One would hope it could be in the Office of the Commissioner of Education where it would have more impact on the total federal bureaucracy. Some have suggested that once it is established, one major part of it may be a coordinating council composed of individuals who are involved in programs where guidance and counseling is an inherent part of the program but where no one is speaking for guidance and counseling within the USOE.

Guidance and counseling in USOE is in a difficult position. On the one hand, Congress has recognized the need for guidance and counseling services and incorporated them into a number of pieces of legislation. On the other hand, because guidance and counseling is a piece of many different parts of education support programs, its role has become dispersed throughout the Office of Education and even into the Labor Department through programs such as CETA. The guidance unit, if it works effectively can ameliorate many of these difficulties and provide the critical coordinating function required. The purpose is not to pull guidance out of the other offices and programs but to aid in being certain that the guidance aspects of programs function as effectively as they can.

To suggest that this unit will provide another period for guidance and counseling like the era of NDEA is unrealistic. NDEA authorized categorical money to provide state level leadership and to ensure the growth of guidance services at the local level. Funds were also provided for pre-service training of counselors. What is legislated now is a method for coordinating existing guidance and counseling activities at the federal, state and local levels to be certain that the services currently authorized by the various pieces of legislation are in fact provided once the money is appropriated. In addition, what seems to be required is a method for determining where guidance needs to be added to on-going education programs that currently do not include counseling components.

In relation to SEAs, the guidance unit in the USOE can fill the important role of once again enlisting cooperation among states and to stimulate SEAs to strengthen their guidance staffing and services. Only now the issue is not just programmatic development but also determining just how we can continue to improve existing services. There is also an opportunity for the profession to look inward at itself to continue to identify and clarify ways in which school counselors can work more effectively with other professionals in serving children and youth.

A CHALLENGE FOR THE FUTURE

The state level task of coordination for which money is authorized in the legislation provides the states with an opportunity to continue to develop a firm base for its activities. Some have suggested that NDEA may have harmed as well as helped guidance and counseling. It may have done damage by providing too much too quickly. In other words, rather than having guidance and counseling program evolve gradually they mushroomed, perhaps before the profession had an opportunity to develop an identity and to define clearly its role in education. If counseling and guidance can now clearly identify those program elements that are considered essential and indicate where and how guidance and counseling activities and staff fit into other aspects of the total program, it will have made major strides. The federal government can aid states in working with one another and in giving information to one another. But the states must do their own work in identifying their respective priorities and working with other groups in schools and in communities.

SUPERVISION/ADMINISTRATION OF COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE AT THE STATE LEVEL AND WITH THE LOCAL LEVEL

Administrators of federal funds, bureaucrats, facilitators, "snoopervisors", interpretors of certification standards, and professional colleagues are some of the terms used to describe supervisors (in some states they are "consultants") of counseling and guidance in state education agencies (SEAs). Increasing interest in the role and function of as well as the problems and challenges faced by state and local supervisors are aptly described in the recent articles by Musselman (1976), Aubrey (1976), Hays (1977) and Erpenback (1977). The purpose of this chapter is to further examine selected aspects of (a) state supervision of counseling and guidance, *(b) the relationship of state agencies with the federal and local school* levels, and (c) development of coordinative vehicles to improve the delivery of counseling and guidance programs through SEAs to the local school level.

State Supervision — A Glimpse of the Past, Present and Future

As noted by Erpenbach (1977, p. 305), the theme for a special issue of Counselor Education and Supervision in Spring 1967 was, "Forces for Change in Counselor Education and Supervision". Supervisors (regardless of work setting) were not identified in this treatise as a "force for change" in the profession. Yet, Hoyt (1966) and Herr have written forcefully of the "influence", leadership, and support roles which state supervisors have had and continue to have on the history of counseling and guidance. By and large, state supervisors have been "silent partners" in the school counseling and guidance movement. As summarized by Erpenbach (1977):

> When all is said and done, very little is known about state supervisors...(outside of their own circle). They are: few in number; lacking a recognized place in the literature let alone a preparation curricula — one doesn't set out to be a state supervisor and is often ill-prepared for the role; designated an 'interest area' of ACES; alleged to be influential; rarely trained to 'supervise'; recognized in federal law; and charged with broad responsibilities concerning the preparation of and work of school counselors in the public schools of the nation (p. 307).

Then. Citing an earlier work by Camp (1964) for the USOE, Erpenbach (1977, p. 306) reports that 210 professional state guidance workers were employed in 1964. Approximately 83 percent were male and 17 percent female; their median ages were 40 and 49 years respectively; their average salary was about $9,000; 23 percent held a doctorate; and 80 percent held membership in APGA with ACES being the most frequently belonged to division. It is evident that the passage of NDEA, V in 1958 also gave great impetus to develop staffing in counseling and guidance in SEAs.

The responsibilities, functions and activities of state supervisors of counseling and guidance have been studied from time to time. Three of the more comprehensive studies were those by Duncan (1970), Herr (1971), and Duncan and Geoffroy (1971). The findings of this research will not be reported in this paper. Rather, it is recommended that interested readers review these studies in the greater depth which they merit.

Now. Current data on state supervisors of counseling and guidance are reported in the work of Hollis and Wantz (1976, pp. 457-464). They note that:

> In many states, persons with special skills are employed within the State Department of Education to assist with the counseling and guidance activities. Often a separate section or division

> is formed; however, the counseling and guidance specialists in many states are grouped with other pupil services personnel. As reflected by job titles, many staff members have jobs related to federal projects and/or funds. In two states... no personnel are employed to assist with counseling and guidance. In some other states, the personnel who have other major assignments perform the counseling and guidance functions....

Hollis and Wantz report that the number of SEA counseling and guidance personnel presently range from zero in Alaska and Arizona to 14 in Ohio with an average of four in each administrative unit; the total counseling and guidance staff members in the SEAs is presently 220; and, approximately 20 percent hold the doctorate and another 2 percent the education specialist. Commenting on the variety of responsibilities reported by the state supervisors, Hollis and Wantz state:

> With so large a number of responsibilities reported and no one, two, or three responsibilities common among all the states, questions might be raised as to the image portrayed. If State Departments differ in what they expect of their staff, could this cause different people to perceive counseling and guidance functions differently? If so, is that a contributor or a hindrance to competency development on the part of present or future staff members? Could these differences in responsibilities also cause differences in expectations in counselor education programs within colleges and universities?

In a 1976 USOE directory, 233 SEA guidance and personnel services professional staff members are listed — 267 male and 66 females. These data compare closely with the findings of Hollis and Wantz (1976) and while the number of females in state supervision has increased, it remains low in comparison to males. The number of state supervisors has apparently held very constant over the past 15 years or so. No data appear to exist regarding current ages of state supervisors.

The salaries paid state supervisors has apparently kept pace with their counterparts in the public schools and occasionally exceeds that paid in some other areas of the profession. Abbott, Langer and Associates (1977) report a mean salary of $24,035 for those indicating supervisory responsibilities for more than 50 professionals in counseling and guidance during 1976. This group includes state supervisors as well as supervisors in other settings.

Finally, professional association membership of state supervisors was measured at the January 1977 national conference, "New Imperatives in Guidance". As noted by Erpenbach (1977):

> Of 45 state supervisors attending this ERIC/CAPS and APGA led conference, 33 (73.3 percent) were APGA members with 23 (51.1 percent) holding membership in ACES.

Future. The future — at least short-range — does not look very bright for state supervisors. Most work in positions supported largely, if not entirely, by federal funds. The sharp erosion of these funds has already been discussed. Unless more states are willing to assume the costs of providing leadership and supervisory services for counseling and guidance within their SEAs, it is quite probable that the number of state guidance supervisors will dwindle. This is a phenomenon being felt in other areas of SEA staffing — an inability or unwillingness of state legislatures to assume the costs of SEA staffing built on federal dollars as these particular dollars diminish; regardless of merit, demonstrated effectiveness, and/or need. It is clear that state supervisors of counseling and guidance must develop better understandings of the political and fiscal factors at play in this situation if they are to deal effectively with the situation. One vehicle for attaining this knowledge and building coping/reactive behaviors will become available if Part D, Title II, P.L. 94-482 is funded and extended beyond 1979.

The provisions of Part D also hold substantial implications for the role and functions of state supervisors — implications which were discussed earlier in this paper. Assuming funding of the legislation, state supervisors will once again find their roles affected markedly by federal mandate. Added this time, however, will be the unique, challenging and crucial responsibility of providing/assuring coordination in the delivery of programs which support counseling and guidance services for the youth of our nation. To help in the "sorting out" of responsibilities and planning for future roles, it appears very desirable that Herr's (1971) study of state supervisors be replicated.

Added to future responsibilities will be the need for state supervisors to become more knowledgeable about the politics of education and the legislative process at the federal as well as state levels. This may require some balancing between the federal Hatch Act and certain state level sanctions, but it will be necessary. Finally, state supervisors will undoubtedly be called upon to provide more leadership for in-service training of school counselors and assisting LEAs in the areas of implementing guidance and counseling at the elementary school level and re-tooling these services at the secondary level. The near future appears to be one of marked contrasts for state supervisors — rapidly diminishing federal funds to support their positions and work with states unable or unwilling to assume these costs while the needs for, and effectiveness of, the services provided by state supervisors continues to increase substantially. The case for continued federal support of counseling and guidance as a national priority must be made — again.

Relationships of SEAs to the USOE and LEAs

As Constitutional scholars are quick to point out, education is a power left to the States. Within the states, state education agencies have become, in the words of one writer, "trustees of American education". During the past two decades, however, the federal government has taken a prominent role in the field of education through legislation, regulation, and funding. The impetus for testing, counseling and guidance in our public elementary and secondary schools stems mainly from federal legislation. The impact of this federal activity on the school counseling profession and other areas of education — integration, handicapped, disadvantaged, discriminated, etc. — has been substantial.

Understanding the relationships between federal and state education agencies is not an easy task. One must also take into consideration the uniqueness of "local control" in the operation of LEAs when examining interrelationships between local, state and federal governments in the organization and administration of education and schools. The Council of Chief State School Officers has published two monographs — *State and Local Responsibilities for Education* and *State and Federal Relationships in Education* — which contribute to developing a better understanding of the relationships which SEAs have to LEAs and the USOE. The content of these monographs will not be reviewed in this paper although special attention is directed to Chapter III, pages 70-87, of the former. This chapter deals with state planning for pupil services.

Relationships with the USOE. SEAs are tied to the USOE through the administration of various federal laws; usually legislatively authorized funds and assurance of compliance with the provisions of that legislation. In other words, if the SEAs wish to receive and use various funds, they will do so in compliance with federal rules and regulations. Toward this end, the federal role has become one principally of review and audit in recent years whereas formerly this had also included leadership and service; audit and proper use of federal dollars being left somewhat to trust and voluntary followance of approved state plans. The provisions of Title III-D, P.L. 94-482 seem to echo a recall to the latter two approaches for the USOE; to be of assistance to SEAs beyond only legislative mandate; to stress professional development and to nurture self-determination in terms of compliance and proper management.

It is quite likely, however, that unless the trend toward even greater program consolidation (as opposed to categorical legislation) is halted and reversed, that SEAs will receive less and less assistance for these types of activities set forth under Title III-D. In the area of consolidation vs. categorical legislation, even SEA staffs are divided. Chief state school officers appear to be seeking more consolidation while various professional staff members of SEAs favor categorical legislation. Meanwhile, representatives of non-public schools are seeking a larger share of the federal aid to education. Because of the gains made in this sector of education, many SEAs are now including personnel on their staffs to work exclusively with non-public schools. Throughout all of this, LWAs — and especially large-city systems — increasingly call for "pass-through" provisions in federal legislation.

The relationship of SEAs with the USOE, and thus the federal government, is likely to become even more complex in the next few years. The Congress is calling for greater accountability from the education community in general. It is also seeking to transfer more of the costs of supporting and staffing SEAs back to the states at a time of greater competition for limited tax dollars. The federal Executive Branch gives no appearance of defusing education as a target for reduced funding because of expanding federal activities at a time of high inflation and limited available tax dollars and flexibility within the federal budget. LEAs and SEAs find themselves in a tremendous bind for fiscal support and dwindling enrollments will not alleviate the problems due to inflation, soaring costs of energy, and increased costs of education. All of this holds tremendous implications for SEAs and their working relationships with the federal government. It is ironic that this should be happening because it is the SEAs which actually implement the federally enacted legislation. This is doubly so for counseling and guidance which has been incorporated in legislation as one of the more promising approaches to solving some of society's more pressing problems — unemployment, placement, drop-out prevention, mainstreaming, prevention of alcohol and other drug abuse, child abuse, development of better parenting skills, etc., etc.

When all is said and done, it must be recognized that if the Congress is going to continue to call and provide for counseling and guidance, it is crucial that the USOE and SEAs establish and maintain organized, coordinated administrative structures for same. This must come not only from Congress through legislative language and funding but from top level Executive Branch support and action. Unfortunately, although the need for all of this seems recognized, it appears unlikely to happen without mandation.

Relationships with LEAs. Generally, SEAs have three types of relationships with LEAs: (a) in the administration of federal legislation; (b) in the administration of state legislation; and, (c) in fulfilling requests for assistance and providing professional leadership through a variety of approaches. In instances of the first two, the services, behaviors, etc. of SEAs are usually clearly set forth. The LEAs may not always understand why certain things may be required of them by the SEA in these particular situations, and this can occasionally lead to differences of opinion and challenges by the LEAs. For obvious reasons, working relationships under the third example are generally extremely harmonious on most occasions.

Differences of opinion between SEAs and LEAs over "pass-through" requirements and the "paper-war" issue in the administration of legislative programs occasionally strains working relationships. LEAs do not always understand the prescriptive nature of federal and state laws and regulation with which SEAs must contend and administrate. LEAs and SEAs also find themselves occasionally as supporting and/or opposing various state legislative issues. Accountability through student assessment testing is one such example as are collective bargaining, the right to strike, and competency based education.

In the area of counseling and guidance, SEAs have provided extensive leadership and supervisory services to SEAs since the enactment of NDEA, V-A and B. However, unless Title III-D is funded and extended, these services are likely to be curtailed severely, if not eliminated entirely as is happening in some states already. This relationship between SEA guidance staffs and LEAs has resulted, for example, in development of certification standards for counselors in all 50 states, initiation of elementary school guidance programs, handbooks for counseling and guidance and other publications, research concerning a wide sector of the profession, inservice workshops, role communication activities, an advocacy voice for school counseling and cooperative efforts to strengthen and improve services provided to the nation's youth.

Coordination of Various Counseling and Guidance Programs and Development of State Plans

As mentioned in this paper, the SEA counseling and guidance personnel will have a major responsibility under Title III-D to develop plans to bring about coordination among various funding and support programs. The purpose of this will be to (a) gather data on the state-of-the-art and (b) improve the delivery of counseling and guidance programs at state and local levels.

Many of the questions which will have to be addressed in this important task have been set forth in Chapters I through III. In addition to considering these, the reader is also referred to the monograph by Erpenbach (1977), State Planning for Counseling and Guidance Programs, published by the ERIC/CAPS Information Center at the University of Michigan. As stated by Erpenbach (p. vii):

> Presented in this monograph is information on the development of comprehensive state plans to strengthen school counseling and guidance programs by coordinating the various funding sources which support the delivery of these services. Included is a discussion of the Federal legislation mandating this coordination together with suggestions and resources to facilitate development of state plans.

Establishment of an administrative unit for counseling and guidance within USOE will be essential to trigger activities in this area. For example, the USOE will have to develop necessary guidelines for formulation of state plans. Again, leadership of USOE in activities such as the regional workshops and national conferences to be conducted during 1978 will be crucial facilitative, initiatory steps. States, meanwhile, should concentrate on identification of programs with counseling and guidance provisions or implications and ways to assess the state-of-the-art of counseling and guidance. With regard to these two particular state activities, SEA staff will find it profitable to call upon their skills in the areas of interpersonal relationships, facilitative behaviors, and action research as well as professional opinion based upon experience, knowledge and perspective of the field. One of the "stickiest" problems that will have to be solved at both the federal and state levels will be achieving coordination between programs administered in various subdivisions within an agency will be frought with political and other undertones. All of these vested interests must be successfully bridged to achieve the desired end results. It will be a time for assessing, pulling together data, and otherwise studying where we have been, and, going forward.

ISSUES FOR DISCUSSION

Having reviewed the current legislation that provides for a guidance unit in USOE as well as the history of the administration and supervision of guidance services at the federal and state levels, it is clear that counseling and guidance is at a major crossroads in its history. There are two critical areas to focus on: a) what kind of leadership and assistance is required from the guidance unit in USOE; and b) what coordination and leadership do states need to provide on their own for program development? By examining both areas simultaneously it will be easier to avoid duplication of efforts and will force states to begin to take more initiative in strengthening guidance at the state and local levels using resources already available to them. Hopefully, these resources will be supplemented by appropriations under P.L. 94-482, Title III, Part D.

In approaching these dual concerns, the following questions can serve as a springboard for discussion:

1. What specific functions do the states want the USOE administrative unit for guidance and counseling to perform in its coordination of guidance and counseling activities under the jurisdiction of the Commissioner of Education?
2. What specific functions do the states want the USOE administrative unit for guidance and counseling to perform in its coordinating function with other programs of the federal government and state and local guidance and counseling programs?
3. What information regarding the state-of-the-art guidance and counseling is required and how can it be most effectively collected and disseminated?
4. What information regarding activities of state and local programs of guidance and counseling is required and how can it be most effectively collected and disseminated?
5. What information regarding guidance and counseling activities of the federal government is required and how can it be most effectively disseminated?
6. What should be the direction of states in the formulations of state support programs for counseling and guidance? Is it more likely that this is where the future lies for the profession?
7. With federal funds come certain strings/constraints and other problems (e.g., Title IX). The ripple-effect of solving one societal problem usually creates a new problem or set of problems. Assuming this will hold true for carrying out Title IV-D, what are some of the most likely major ripple effects? How can they be anticipated and perhaps partially avoided?

In addressing these questions it is important for the states to make their suggestions concrete and to indicate their preferences in order of priority.

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